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Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination
against Women (CEDAW)

CONSIDERATION OF REPORTS SUBMITTED BY STATES PARTIES UNDER ARTICLE 18 OF THE CONVENTION

Second periodic reports of States parties

FINLAND*

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* For the initial report submitted by the Government of Finland, see CEDAW/C/5/Add.56 and CEDAW/C/5/Add.56/Amend.1; for its consideration by the Committee, see CEDAW/C/SR.141, CEDAW/C/SR.142 and CEDAW/C/SR.145, and Official Records of the General Assembly, eighth session Supplement No. 38 (A/44/38), paras. 213-265.

I INTRODUCTION

One of the most significant achievements of the United Nations Decade for Women 1975–1985 was the conclusion of the **Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women.** In many languages, the Convention is known by a shorter name which better reflects its wider scope; the Convention not only prohibits discrimination but also obliges the States Parties to take active affirmative measures to improve the position of women. In Finland, a shorter form was adopted during the preparation of this Report which could be translated as "the convention for the rights of women".

Finland became a Party to the Convention in 1986. When ratifying the Convention Finland adopted the principle that every attempt should be made to guarantee the level in legislation aimed at improving the position of women that corresponds to the Nordic frame of reference which Finland has. The adoption of the Act on Equality between Women and Men (Equality Act) and the establishment of bodies relating to it – office of the Equality Ombudsman and the Equality Board created a new framework for action towards equality as carried out by Finnish authorities since the early 1970s.

In 1988, Finland submitted its initial Report to the Committee on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW). This second Report now at hand covers the years 1988 to 1991, a period which, five years after the entry into force of the Act, is long enough to permit an evaluation of the effects of the Equality Act and other measures taken to implement the Convention. In some cases, early 1992 is also covered.

This Report addresses new developments since the first Report, whether actual changes or measures envisaged or implemented. Because the Equality Act places all authorities under an obligation to actively promote equality between men and women, steps taken by the various authorities are discussed under each Article, not only as regards legislative changes – which were to be introduced before the ratification of the Convention – but particularly to identify the measures taken by them to promote equality and the status of women.

The Report focuses on the issues specifically raised by the Committee. These include violence against women, prostitution, and the position of foreign women, women in a minority as well as women with a disability. Therefore, the emphasis in the Report may in some respects differ from that of the work carried out towards equality in Finland in recent years.

In Finland, reporting to CEDAW has served as a model to the development of a system of reporting under the human rights treaties. To guarantee a free flow of information and access to the basic materials, the first Finnish report to CEDAW was already published in Finnish and English. Leaflets containing the text of the Convention in Finnish and in Swedish are available for free. New editions with basic facts on the Convention were published on the tenth anniversary of the Convention in Finnish and on the International Women's Day 1992 in Swedish.

A Working Group was established to prepare the Report, with representatives from different Ministries. Understandably, the outcome is to a large extent based on the work of the competent authority – the Office of the Equality Ombudsman – and of the Equality Board. For an overview of discretionary steps taken by the various authorities as provided by the Equality Act, the Working Group requested each Ministry and employers' organizations and central organization of trade unions to provide information on the implementation of the Convention during the period covered by the Report.

The information supplied varied greatly in scope and approach. In a number of cases it appeared that the obligations under the Convention to take practical measures had not been fully understood. The translation of a de jure approach to equality into de facto promotion of equality should therefore be encouraged. A good means to achieve this goal can be found in the international exchange of information and experience taking place in the context of reporting under the Convention.

To supplement the information gathered in the above manner and to improve communication, a **public hearing** was arranged by the Minister for Equality in the House of Parliament in November 1991. Those invited were representatives of women's organizations and other nongovernmental organizations as well as employers' associations and trade union organizations. The material collected by the Working Group was distributed to the participants, together with the related statistical data. The participants had an opportunity to express their opinions and ask questions. The Ministers for Equality, Justice and the Environment were present to reply questions, as were senior officials from a number of Ministries. With access to the hearing, the media provided information about the discussions of the implementation of the Convention to the public at large.

The experience indicates that the reporting process at the national level can be improved in many ways, which also helps to promote the implementation of the provisions of the Convention. There is every intention to continue improving the system of reporting under the Convention, and also to systematically draw attention to questions relating to the position of women when reports on the implementation of other human rights treaties are being prepared.

Before it was finalized, the Report was also discussed by the **Advisory Board for International Human Rights Affairs** working in connection with the Ministry for Foreign Affairs. The Board is involved in the preparation of reports under human rights treaties submitted by Finland.

The draft Report and proposals for steps to be taken were submitted to the Minister for Equality in April 1992 for Government opinion.

Upon deciding to submit this Report to the UN Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women the Government adopted the following statement:

Statement by the Finnish government
(Adopted on 16 September 1992)

The Finnish Government attaches great importance to international cooperation carried out in the framework of the United Nations and regional organizations, both European and Nordic, and aimed at advancing the status of women. Finland is prepared to work actively to achieve greater efficiency in such cooperation not only in legally binding contexts, most importantly the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (the Convention), and other human rights treaties, but also in the fora of political cooperation where the Commission on the Status of Women plays an essential role.

As the representative of the Nordic Countries in the Commission as well as on the Committee on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), Finland will, in the next few years, have a particularly good opportunity to participate in international cooperation on the status of women.

It is planned that support be increased for participation by women in **international cooperation**. The Government has commissioned a study on the implementation in administration and decision-making processes of Article 8 of the Convention which refers to participation by women in international cooperation and in the activities of international organizations. The study will encompass ways of supporting such participation by women's organizations. The survey is part of Finland's preparations for the 1995 World Conference. Measures for improvements will be considered on the basis of a preliminary report to be issued by the end of 1992.

The Finnish Government deems it important that every aspect of Finnish development cooperation aims at advancing the status of women and their opportunities to participate in and influence decision-making. The Government will make an effort to reduce to the minimum the implications for the rights of women in developing countries of the budgetary cuts of development aid.

Finland is actively preparing for the **UN World Conference on Human Rights** to be held in Vienna in June 1993 with a view to establishing a policy that the human rights of women be discussed in the general framework of human rights work and the implementation of these rights. Finland's membership in the UN Commission on the Status of Women as well as in the UN Commission on Human Rights will offer excellent opportunities to promote such a policy.

Finland will endeavour to promote work carried out in the **Council of Europe** to place greater emphasis on women's rights in the context of the European Convention on Human Rights and the European Social Charter.

In further preparations for the reform of the provisions of the Constitution Act relating to **fundamental rights,** the Government will take account of the need for the reform to reflect international developments as exemplified by the Convention.

When examining the first periodic report to CEDAW, the Government drew attention to the problem in Finnish **law** that rape in marriage is not a sexual crime under the Criminal Code. In this respect, Finland is an exception among European countries. A Government Bill to amend this situation will be introduced later in 1992.

The question of **economic equality** is central to womens' rights. Finland is involved in a joint Nordic project on equal pay. The Government platform spells out an intention to promote the principle of equal pay for equal work or work of equal value. Therefore the Government decided, in August 1992, to provide financial support for a pilot study on job evaluation involving both employers' associations and trade unions.

The Finnish Government is prepared to enter into an open and constructive dialogue with CEDAW, which plays an important role in the promotion of equality and women's rights as part of the international struggle for human rights.

II IMPLEMENTATION OF THE CONVENTION

Article 1

For the purposes of the present Convention the term "discrimination against women" shall mean any distinction, exclusion or restriction made on the basis of sex which has the effect or purpose of impairing or nullifying the recognition, enjoyment or exercise by woman irrespective of their marital status, on a basis of equality of men and women, of human rights and fundamental freedoms in the political, economic, social, cultural, civil or any other field.

Article 9 (2) of the Finnish Equality Act states that the law providing for military service for men cannot be considered discrimination on the basis of sex. According to the government bill, this Article of the Act emphasizes that the question of military service for women is not a matter relating to the equality of women and men.[1] The Council for Equality has taken a similar view, saying that military service is not one of the fundamental rights whose equal recognition and implementation for both sexes is guaranteed by the Convention. The question of military service for women is therefore not seen as falling within the scope of the Convention.

In the past few years, debate on the **role of women in national defence** has intensified in Finland. In 1991, the Board proposed that a parliamentary committee with wide representation be established to examine the issue of women and national defence in all its aspects. In February 1992 a committee (Women and National Military Defence) was set up by the Ministry of Defence to look into ways of improving women's possibilities of participating in national defence. The primary task of the committee is to determine whether there is need to arrange for voluntary military service for women. Secondly, the committee should establish whether it is necessary to provide training for women to enable them to take up military careers. In addition, the committee will identify ways of improving the dissemination of information about national defence at schools and in specific training courses. The committee should report its findings by 31 March 1993.

The Council submitted in its opinion that the terms of reference of the committee should have covered examination of the content of security policy as well as of the content of the national defence training in relation to participation in national defence by women.

In 1991, **participation by Finnish women in the United Nations peace-keeping operations** was made possible. Women can perform only duties of a civilian nature and serve without military rank. In every other respect, the entire peace-keeping personnel are supposed to perform, as far as possible, the same duties and have the same rights and obligations. The terms of service are the same irrespective of sex. The general qualifications for women are the same as those for men. Special qualifications required of women are training and examinations necessary for this service. The minimum age for women is 25. The first five-week training period for 34 women for peacekeeping operations started in November 1991. These women entered service in December 1991 and April 1992. In the spring of 1992, some 1 270 Finns were serving in UN peacekeeping forces, including twenty women. Most of them, the women included, were posted in Lebanon and the Golan.

Article 2

States parties condemn discrimination against women in all its forms, agree to pursue, by all appropriate means and without delay, a policy of eliminating discrimination against women and, to this end, undertake:

(a) To embody the principle of the equality of men and women in their national Constitutions or other appropriate legislation if not yet incorporated therein, and to ensure, through law and other appropriate means, the practical realization of this principle;
(b) To adopt appropriate legislative and other measures, including sanctions where appropriate, prohibiting all discrimination against women;
(c) To establish legal protection of the rights of women on an equal basis with men and to ensure through competent national tribunals and other public institutions the effective protection of women against any act of discrimination;
(d) To refrain from engaging in any act or practice of discrimination against women and to ensure that public authorities and institutions shall act in conformity with this obligation;
(e) To take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women by any person, organization or enterprise;
(f) To take all appropriate measures, including legislation, to modify or abolish existing laws, regulations, customs and practices which constitute discrimination against women;
(g) To repeal all national penal provisions which constitute discrimination against women.

SUB-PARAGRAPH A)

Applicability of the Convention in Finland

Following its ratification by Finland on 4 September 1986 and incorporation into domestic law, the Convention has had the **force of law** in Finland, binding on the legislature, administrative authorities as well the courts of justice. The primary concern at the time of the ratification of the Convention was to harmonize the Finnish law with the treaty provisions. Less attention has so far been paid to the fact that the Convention should also **be applied by the authorities and the courts.** In their work, they should take the treaty provisions into consideration as independent norms, and interpret national legislation in the light of the Convention. It is their duty to know the law, and this duty also covers the human rights treaties that are binding on Finland.

These requirements **are not yet fulfilled in practice.** For the proper implementation of the Convention, it is therefore necessary increasingly to inform the authorities and courts about the importance of the Convention to their work. The fact that the Convention has not been published in the Statute Book of Finland (the generally used collection of legal texts) is a drawback in this respect.

Reform of the provisions on fundamental rights

The fundamental rights of citizens are regulated by the Constitution Act. The Act does not explicitly provide for sexual equality. In the autumn of 1989 the Government established a Committee for Fundamental Rights to look into the incorporation of fundamental rights into Chapter II of the Constitution Act on a more comprehensive basis than is the case currently. The Committee submitted its report in February 1992.[2]

The Committee for Fundamental Rights proposes that Article 5 of the Constitution Act which provides for the equality of citizens be amended by adding the following **clause prohibiting discrimination:** "All persons shall be free from discrimination on the grounds of sex, age, health, disability, language, national origin, religion or other conviction, opinion, social status or for other such reason." This prohibition would prevent the enactment of ordinary laws which discriminate between the sexes. The provision would also prohibit sexual discrimination by public authorities, enterprises, organizations and individuals. According to the Committee, the prohibition would extend to any activity that indirectly results in discrimination. In this case, the presence of discrimination should be assessed on the basis of actual consequences. The proposal does not preclude positive action, or measures aimed at promoting real equality by improving the position and conditions of a particular group.

The Committee for Fundamental Rights also proposes that **a provision on the equality of the sexes** be added to Article 5 of the Constitution Act: "The promotion of equality between women and men shall be regulated by law. Women and men have right to equal pay for work of equal value and to equal treatment at work and when being recruited or offered employment." The reason for this provision, as stated by the Committee, is that irrespective of the legislative measures taken so far, the position of women at work, in the family and in decision-making processes, for example, is clearly inferior to that of men. The Committee also refers to Article 2 (a) of the Convention and states that while the incorporation of the principle of equality between the sexes in the Equality Act per se fulfils the minimum requirements of this treaty provision, the provision gives a very good reason for including a special provision on equality in the Constitution Act.

The proposed provision requires that the promotion of equality between the sexes be stipulated by law. The Committee states that this provision does not refer only to the Equality Act, which alone is not sufficient to fulfil the requirement to promote equality as set out in the provision. The proposal also places the legislator under a obligation to develop legislation further.

Both the Council for Equality and the Equality Ombudsman have submitted their comments on the report of the Committee for Fundamental Rights. The Council commented that the Committee should have focused more attention on the changes in the role of the state and in decisionmaking processes in society, including the significance of those changes to the enjoyment of fundamental rights. As compared to the rights of men, the implementation of the rights of women is more dependent on the services provided by the welfare state. A short review of the significance of gender in the report of the Committee is considered too formal by the Council. Also, the relationship between the equality of the sexes and other fundamental rights should have received more detailed discussion. The Council emphasizes that the right to equal pay for work of equal value and the right to one's body and sexuality should be clearly stipulated as fundamental rights. The promotion of equality between the sexes should be included in the obligations of the state.

In her comments, the Equality Ombudsman says that with development towards greater unity in Europe, fundamental rights will gain more significance; therefore the Committee should have examined the new challenges of developing the concept and content of fundamental rights in greater depth. The Ombudsman comments further that it is human beings who are either women or men that are in the focus of human rights. The Ombudsman therefore believes that, when laying out fundamental rights in law, reference should in key provisions be made to women and men, because the implications of a particular fundamental right may be different for women and men.

Other comments, including those by the Ministry for Foreign Affairs, also drew attention to the obligations under international human rights treaties, such as the CEDAW Convention, to reform the law as regards fundamental human rights.

SUB-PARAGRAPHS B) AND C)

On the effectiveness of the Equality Act

The Finnish **Equality Act** prohibits discrimination based on sex. The prohibition also applies to indirect discrimination: Article 7 of the Act states that discrimination also covers activities which result in the de facto creation of manifestly different positions for women and men. A person subject to indirect discrimination is not entitled to damages under the Act. It appears that the prohibition in the Act against indirect discrimination should be strengthened. Also, for it to be in accordance with EC legislation, the Act should be amended to include a prohibition against discrimination on account of family situation and marital status. In May 1992, Finland signed the Agreement of the European Economic Area. A Bill for the ratification of the Agreement was submitted to Parliament in the autumn of 1992, and it is likely that the Agreement will enter into force on 1 January 1993. Under the Agreement, EC directives on sexual equality will become binding on Finland, and Finland will have to bring its legislation into line with them.

The Equality Ombudsman receives 200 to 300 complaints every year. Most of the complaints concern alleged discrimination in recruitment or pre-selection for work, but complaints regarding pay differentials are increasing. Of the clients making complaints, 70 to 80 per cent are women and 20 to 25 per cent are men. Most clients work in the public sector, and their education is above the average. It is justified to say that information about the possibilities offered by the Equality Act should be increased.

A person subject to job discrimination prohibited by the Act may seek damages from the employer. To do so, she or he must initiate legal proceedings no later than a year from the discriminatory act. Lower courts have already passed decisions on a fair number of cases. The damages awarded have amounted to some 20,000 marks, while they may, under the Act, vary from 11,100 to 35,100 marks. The first three decisions by the Supreme Court were awarded in 1991. In each of them, the Court's interpretation of the Act was the same as had been that of the Equality Ombudsman.

An additional legal remedy, which is called the municipal complaint, is available to persons employed by the municipal (local) government or seeking jobs in that sector. The municipal complaint is made to the provincial administrative court whose decision may be appealed to the Supreme Administrative Court. Now that the latter has passed judgment on the first cases the provincial administrative courts have adopted the same line of interpretation.

In practice, problems have arisen regarding not only the deadline of a year prescribed for the initiation of legal proceedings but also the small amounts of damages available. There is reason to doubt whether the amounts fulfil the requirement in the EC directive and legal practice of an efficient and substantial penalty.

The complicity of the legal remedies available under the Act together with the small compensation seem to explain why the number of legal cases to obtain damages has remained so small. An additional reason is that those who have experienced discrimination may fear stigmatization or losing their career opportunities.

Employees who have resorted to the Equality Act may also have become the target of **reprisals** at the workplace. This is reported in a 1992 study made by the Office of the Equality Ombudsman of its clients. The reprisals vary from a change in the employee's responsibilities to impairment of the terms and conditions of contract of employment to negative attitudes to the employee at the workplace. Currently the Finnish equality legislation does not offer efficient protection in these cases, whereas EC directives require the remedying of such situations. Efficient legal protection requires that it be afforded whether or not provisions on equality have been invoked at the workplace itself, through contacting equality authorities or by initiating legal proceedings.

After the Equality Act has been in force for five years, a report on its implementation will be given to Parliament in autumn 1992. When adopting the Act, Parliament specifically required that the following issues be addressed in report: 1) whether or not the advertizing business has been able to eliminate discriminatory advertizing practices on its own initiative, 2) protection against reprisals, and 3) sexual harassment at work.

In October 1991, the Ministry for Social Affairs and Health set up a committee to look into the need for reforming the Equality Act. The terms of reference of the committee specified that the committee should, first, assess whether the objectives of the Act had been achieved and identify the kinds of changes that might be required.

Second, the committee should use the EC sex equality directives and court practice to assess to what extent the Finnish Equality Act meets the obligations set therein. Third, the committee was to establish whether the Act should be amended to contain provisions on discriminatory advertizing practices, protection against reprisals and measures against sexual harassment. The committee was due to complete its work by the end of September 1992.

The committee's terms of reference were reformulated in February 1992 to urgently discuss the necessary amendments to the Act to prohibit indirect discrimination and unequal treatment on the grounds of pregnancy. The amendments were necessitated, among other things, by supreme court judgements regarding the termination of the contract of employment with a pregnant woman and the duration of the replacement of employees on maternity leave.

The amendments to the Equality Act came into force on 1 August 1992. As amended, the Act explicitly states that unequal treatment on the grounds of pregnancy and childbirth are considered indirect discrimination. Also, a provision was added to say that unequal treatment or acts resulting in de facto inequality because of parenthood, maintenance responsibilities or for any other reason indirectly related to sex must be deemed sex discrimination. Yet another amendment was made for the prohibition against discrimination at work also to apply to the restriction or extension of the length of the contract of employment.

The Province of Åland has its own equality act, in force since 1 April 1989. This act differs from the Finnish law in three aspects. It is the Provincial Executive Board that is charged with the duties undertaken by the Equality Ombudsman in accordance with the Finnish law; official documents related to the equality of the sexes remain restricted while the matters are under discussion; and discriminatory advertizing is prohibited. This prohibition applies only to advertisements produced within the Province of Åland.

SUB-PARAGRAPH D)

In order to put into practice the obligation imposed on public authorities, the preparation of plans to enhance equality was began in various sectors of administration at the beginning of the l990s. A detailed discussion of these plans follows under Article 4. Other measures to enhance equality are discussed under the relevant Articles.

SUB-PARAGRAPH E)

The University of Tampere has launched an extensive project on the aspects of power in Finland, which is expected to take three to four years. The project will entail a number of studies, including some on the position of women in the power structures of Finnish society.

SUB-PARAGRAPH F)

In accordance with Section 30 of the Social Welfare Act, citizens have a right to living allowance in a situation where a person or a family cannot obtain the necessary means for a living in any other way. In some municipalities, the authorities have served the decision on such support to the wedded or common-law husband even in cases where the benefit was sought by the wife. The Ministry for Social Affairs and Health has said that this is not an appropriate procedure and instructed the municipal boards for social affairs that the decisions on benefits must always be served to the applicant.

SUB-PARAGRAPH G)

Violence against women

Violence against women has raised little discussion in Finland. The subject has remained a taboo. Apparently it has been a common line of thinking that equality of the sexes is an accomplished fact, and therefore no such problems reflecting inequality can exist in the country. Therefore, responsibility for dealing with the problem has been relinquished to a small number of professionals such as police, social workers, doctors and staff at shelters. Characteristically, the problem has been invisible.

In May 1990 the Council for Equality mandated a subcommittee to examine physical and sexual violence against women, to propose measures to eliminate such violence, and to help victims. The sub-committee reported its findings to the Council in November 1991. In addition to focusing on the above subjects, the report also contains information on actions by international organizations and states to address these issues. The fact that the report was made public increased discussion of the problem in the media. The following information is based on the report[3].

According to statistics, an average of 143 murders, manslaughters or other premeditated assaults leading to death were committed every year in Finland in the 1980s. In 30 per cent of the cases, the victim was a woman. This meant that every year an average of 43 women lost lives; in other words, two women out of 100,000 (who were over fifteen years of age). In 1989, 25 women died as a result of domestic violence. The 1988 statistics showed that in half the cases of criminal homicide (manslaughter, murder) and in more than 40 per cent of the cases of aggravated assault the acts were committed by the spouse.

In a 1988 study based on interviews, 136,000 women, or 6.5 per cent of those over fifteen, said that they had on one or more occasions been **subjected to domestic violence or threats thereof** within the past year. The method of calculating acts of violence underestimates the extent of marital violence, because in many cases marital violence is continual, and it is the cases in which the person responsible is not known to the victim that are reported to police.

An average of 345 **rapes** were reported to police every year in the 1980s. The figures have remained fairly constant since the mid-1960s. It is however a small fraction of the cases that is reported. The police estimate that some 6.000 to 10.000 rapes are committed in Finland every year.

Surveys made by Statistics Finland in 1980 and 1988 covered **violence at the workplace.** The term refers to violence committed against a person in the performance of her/his duties. In 1988, acts of violence committed at work accounted for more than a fifth of all the acts of violence against women and men. While, in 1980, the incidence of this type of violence was sixteen per cent of all acts of violence, by 1988 the figure had risen to 23 per cent. The rise took place in violence against women, and particularly against women in age group 20 to 44. In 1988, over 52,000 acts of violence were committed at the workplace against women, and over 62,000 against men respectively. On average, violence at work is less serious than other types of violence; it entails threatening the person or pushing and shoving.

Studies indicate that the majority of violent acts against women are nowadays committed in the homes in the form of domestic violence, the second most common type of violence being violence at the workplace. The situation is different among men. There was an increase in the number of cases reported to police in the 1980s especially as regards violence against men at the workplace, in small groups and on the street. **In typical cases of violence against women, fewer were reported to police than earlier. This means that in crime statistics, which are based on reported cases, the share of violence typically hitting men becomes more pronounced.**

Liability to report violent crime is influenced by such factors as the gravity of violence and the relationship between the victim and the perpetuator of the crime. This means that the more serious the crime, the greater the likelihood of the victim reporting it to police, if the victim and the offender do not know each other. Consequently, the statistics for murder, manslaughter and involuntary manslaughter, as well as for robberies of stores, post offices and banks are quite comprehensive, whereas the statistics are less all-encompassing for violent acts against women and children, sexual violence within the family, and violence among marginalized groups in society.

Victims of violence or people subject to threats of violence can turn to police, social workers on duty or doctors or go to one of the 50 shelters and apartments provided for families in crisis. Fourteen of the shelters are run by the Federation of the Mother and Child Homes and Shelters, and the rest by local authorities or organizations of various kind. Most of them follow the principle that the primary concern is to safeguard the interest of the child and to see the problem of violence as something that affects the family as a whole. In contrast with many other countries, only a handful of shelters in Finland are run on feminist principles.

In 1990, shelters and apartments were able to accommodate 200 victims of violence. A total of 4,500 people were given shelter in them of whom 2,250 were adults and 2,100 were children. Nights spent in the shelters amounted to 45,000. One group needing these services consist of foreign women living in Finland.

In its report to the Council the sub-committee proposed a number measures to prevent violence, reform legislation, improve the capabilities of police, create services, establish rehabilitation programmes for offenders as well as to increase research and public information on the subject. The following practical steps were proposed:

- Irrespective of sex and family situation, every person should have right to protection when or after facing a risk of physical or sexual violence. The provision of protection should be unambiguously defined as a duty of local authorities in each municipality or in the context of inter-municipal cooperation (federations of municipalities).
- The forms and mechanisms of repression of women should be made visible so that they can be influenced (including sexist language, contempt of women, pornography, sex tourism).
- More support should be provided for fathers in creating interaction with their children and for the positive development of the child's emotional life. The men's movement should be encouraged to discuss their role and men's behaviour in crises.
- A publicity campaign should be launched to fight violence against women: to condemn it, to prompt victims to look for help, and to encourage offenders to seek rehabilitation.
- Assault and battery should always be prosecuted by the public prosecutor.
- The right of violent men to visit their wife and family should be prohibited by law.

- Persons who have been subject to violence or threats of violence should be able to change their name and social security number.
- More frequent use should be made of women police officers to settle situations involving violence.
- The basic training of police officers should contain training in dealing with cases involving violence against women and children and with those entailing sexual violence as well as in helping victims.
- Instructions should be drawn up for police, prosecutors and courts advising them how to handle cases involving violence.
- Support and advice centres should be created to help victims of rape and incest.
- Questions relating to violence should increasingly be taken up in the training of professionals.
- On-duty services should be provided to victims of violent crime.
- Programmes or services should be created for men to discuss their violent behaviour to provide therapy.
- Consideration should be given to providing the alternative to offenders of going to therapy for part of the sentence of imprisonment.
- More and improved research should be carried out into violence in general and into that against women in particular.

The report was submitted to comments by a large number of authorities and organizations in early 1992. The comments so far given have taken a very positive stand on the proposals.

In the framework of implementing some of the proposed measures, a two-day seminar for experts was organized in the summer of 1992 which attracted a lot of interest. This proves that the competent authorities are welldisposed to receiving more information on the problem of violence with a view to finding better solutions to it.

Speakers at the seminar included not only Finnish and Nordic experts but also the Ministers within whose competence the question falls: the Ministers for equality, justice, internal affairs, and social affairs.

Domestic violence

Generally speaking, Finnish criminal law is gender neutral in sexual terms. However, the legislation in force contains rules that are de facto discriminatory against women. One of the problems with Finnish law is that it reflects the view that domestic violence is a private matter in which public authorities must not interfere through criminal law. This entails that, in most acts of violence within the family, the right to prosecute rests with the plaintiff. The public prosecutor cannot initiate proceedings unless requested by the person involved. The Ministry of Justice however believes that domestic violence is increasingly recognized as a social problem. A Bill will be submitted to Parliament in autumn 1992 to the give prosecution for petty assault committed in privacy to the public prosecutor. According to the Bill, respect for the privacy of the family cannot mean that violence is accepted in relations within the family.

Rape in marriage

Under Finnish law, rape in marriage is not a punishable sex crime. Within the project to reform the criminal law, a working group was set up to amend the provisions on sex crimes. The group will discuss a reform of the provisions on rape. The issue of rape in marriage has been the focus of increasing public debate, requiring urgent reforms. In spring 1991, two proposals were made to Parliament with a view to making rape in marriage a criminal act. Authorities were asked questions about the schedule of the reform at a public hearing on the implementation of the Convention held on 28 November 1991. A Government Bill on the reform will be submitted to Parliament in autumn 1992.

Article 3

States Parties shall take in all fields, in particular in the political, social, economic and cultural fields, all appropriate measures, including legislation, to ensure the full development of women, for the purpose of guaranteeing them the exercise and enjoyment of human rights and fundamental freedoms on a basis of equality with men.

Article 4

1. Adoption by States Parties of temporary special measures aimed at accelerating de facto equality between men and women. shall not be considered discrimination as defined in this Convention, but shall in no way entail, as a consequence, the maintenance of unequal or separate standards; these measures shall be discontinued when the objectives of equality of opportunity and treatment have been achieved.
2. Adoption by States Parties of special measures, including those measures contained in the present Convention, aimed at protecting maternity, shall not be considered discriminatory.

Plans to promote equality

Section 4 of the Equality Act places authorities under an obligation to promote equality between women and men by changing those circumstances which obstruct achievement of equality. Section 6 obliges employers to promote equality. Under these provisions, authorities are to promote equality of the sexes **both as employers and in the performance of their functions.** Accordingly, a distinction can be made between **promotion of equality in staff policy on the one hand and functional promotion of equality on the other.**

Instructions have been issued that plans to promote equality be drawn up both for staff policy and for the performance of functions of each state authority. In January 1990, the Ministry of Finance gave instructions for plans to be made by state institutions and offices to promote equality in staff policy, and a decree on plans for the functional promotion of equality in state administration entered into force on 1 January 1991. The decree requires the Office of the Council of State and the Ministries to inform the Equality Ombudsman by the end of February each year of the measures they have taken to make and implement plans to enhance functional equality. The Office of the Equality Ombudsman has produced a guide to help authorities in preparing such plans.[4]

A study by the Ministry of Finance shows that, by early autumn 1992, plans to increase equality in staff policy had been adopted by nineteen offices of state authorities and were being prepared by another thirteen offices. Of the Ministries, plans had been adopted by the Ministry of the Interior and the Ministry of Labour. As to the authorities in the various sectors of administration, the largest number of plans (eight) had been prepared in the sector falling within the competence of the Ministry of the Interior. In the fields falling withing the competence of the Ministry of Finance, Ministry of Justice, Ministry for Social Affairs and Health, Ministry of Defence, and the Ministry for Foreign Affairs no plans have been made to enhance equality in staff policy.

Among the Ministries, plans to improve functional equality have been adopted by the Ministry of Labour, Ministry of Education (for education), and the Ministry of Transport.

Working groups to prepare plans for equality in their staff policy and in the performance of their functions have been set up by the Ministry of Justice, Ministry for Foreign Affairs, Ministry of Defence, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, and Ministry for Social Affairs and Health. To date, the preparation of plans has not started in the Office of the Council of State, Ministry of Finance, and the Ministry of the Environment.

Increasing the proportion of women in planning and decision-making processes in society

The Equality Act proves for representation of both women and men on state committees, advisory boards and in similar bodies as well as in the various municipal bodies, excluding municipal councils, unless there are special grounds for different representation. In early 1990, the Supreme Administrative Court passed decision on a number of appealed cases alleging that one woman or man on a municipal board does not meet the requirement stipulated by the Act. According to the Supreme Administrative Court decisions, the election in a municipal body of at least one person representing each sex fulfils the requirement in the law.

In these cases the interpretation adopted by the Supreme Administrative Court differs from the line taken by the Equality Ombudsman. In interpreting the Act the Equality Ombudsman has emphasized the travaux preparatoires of the Act, together with the views expressed by the various Parliamentary Committees. This interpretation leans on the established principles governing interpretation of laws which emphasize that the purpose of the legislator must be served in the implementation of a particular law.

In contrast, the Supreme Administrative Court has not attached central importance to the travaux preparatoires or to Parliamentary documents as a source of law. The Court believes that the position taken in the travaux preparatoires and in the other documents on a proportion of representation in a preratory body that is as close to equal as possible – for example, proportions varying from 40 to 60 per cent – is not a binding instruction to interpret the Act. The Court therefore considers that it is sufficient to have at least one representative of each sex in a municipal body.

The **Council for Equality** appointed by the Ministry for Social Affairs and Health in 1989 was charged with the task of proposing action to achieve equality in **state administration.** In its final report[5] submitted to the Ministry in January 1992 the Council proposed the following measures designed to improve the status of women in the planning and decision-making processes in state administration:

- The Equality Act must be amended to provide that at **least 40 per cent of all members of committees, advisory boards, working groups** and similar preparatory and planning organs **must be women and men.** Any deviation from this rule should be permitted only for special reasons.

- Governing bodies of government offices should have an as equal representation as possible of women and men. Noncompliance with this rule would be justified only for special reasons, the fact that a candidate of the underrepresented sex could not be found at the same level in hierarchy as the other members or candidates.

- Public authorities and organizations should nominate women and men as candidates to committees and similar bodies. If more than one candidate is to be nominated, an equal number of women and men should be nominated.

- In establishing committees and similar bodies the Council of State should include in their mandate an examination of the implications of that particular project separately for women and men, unless there are justified reasons not to do so.

- In the preparation of government bills to Parliament the implications of the bill for the activities of women and men as well as to the equality of the sexes should be examined.

The committee also proposed that a special advisor for equality be apointed to assist the Minister for Equality; consultants on equality be trained for the promotion of equality within state administration; and a research project be launched to focus on the goals, possibilities and problems related to the promotion of equality in state administration. By 1995 result management will be adopted in Finnish state administration. The committee therefore looked into the relationship between the promotion of equality and result management, proposing that enhancement of equality should be embodied into this process of management at all levels of administration.

On the initiative of equality authorities, the Ministry of Trade and Industry already follows the principle in the election of supervisory boards and accountants of state companies that both women and men candidates be nominated.

Little use has been made of sex quotas in Finland. After the adoption of their new statute in 1990, the Union of Chemical Workers was the first trade union to introduce a sex quota in the election of their governing bodies.

The Office of the Equality Ombudsman is planning to establish a **register of Finnish women experts** which is to contains the names and addresses of women experts in various fields. The purpose of the register is to increase the use of women's expertise in the media, state administration, organizations in Finland, and in international cooperation.

Article 5

States Parties shall take all appropriate measures:

(a) To modify the social and cultural patterns of conduct of men and women, with a view to achieving the elimination of prejudices and customary and all

other practices which are based on the idea of the inferiority or the superiority of either of the sexes or on stereotyped roles for men and women;

(b) *To ensure that family education includes a proper understanding of maternity as a social function and the recognition of the common responsibility of men and women in the upbringing and development of their children, it being understood that the interest of the children is the primordial consideration in all cases.*

SUB-PARAGRAPH A

Questions of equality are increasingly reported by the **media.** They have high visibility in newspapers, journals and the electric media. A greater public interest is also reflected in the large number of requests for lectures addressed to the Office of the Equality Ombudsman from various parts of the country. To increase public information, a journal on equality (Tasa-arvo, 'Equality') is published four times a year jointly by the Council for Equality and the Office of the Equality Ombudsman.

In 1989, a committee for equality was set up by the Finnish Broadcasting Corporation. A plan to increase equality between women and men was adopted by the governing board of the Corporation in 1991. The plan covers staff policy, publicity, training, and programme policy. In 1992, the first equality officer was appointed, and the first of the so-called Hella awards was given (named after Ms Hella Wuolijoki, one-time director of the Corporation). Both national and local broadcastings are made specifically for women, including a series called Naisten tunti (Women's hour).

Education for equality by trade unions and employers' organizations

In recent years, both trade unions and employers' organizations have offered education for equality. An example is the largest organization representing workers, the Central Organization of Finnish Trade Unions (SAK), which provides such education at the central and local levels as part of its education programmes. In addition, SAK monitors that women are actually able to attend the courses for this purposes. The majority of participants in week-end courses are women, whereas women account for approximately 35 per cent of the attendance in courses lasting for a week or more.

Central organizations for white-collar workers, Confederation of Salaried Employees in Finland (TVK), Confederation of Unions for Academic Professionals in Finland (AKAVA) and Confederation of Technical Employees' Organizations in Finland (STTK) have been involved in a new type of education project for the advancement of women. The underlying idea is to familiarize women with their helplessness and strength, their feelings, and power/lack of power. This is done in training sessions, study circles, womens groups founded at the workplace, and through the exchange of experience. Study materials have been published in the form of a book, and a second book is envisaged, focusing on women, power, and companionship (Nainen, valta ja kumppanuus). The purpose of this book is to analyse the nature and history of power, as well as to discuss the characteristics of a new type of "feminine" or "asexual" power, based on companionship.

Women's studies

Women's studies developed and expanded rapidly in the 1980s. They became institutionalized and more visible both within universities and outside. In contrast to this development, the Finnish scientific community does not yet fully appreciate women's studies, a fact reflected in the difficulty of securing the necessary resources for this field of study.

The relationship between womens' studies and mainstream research may best be characterized by the term 'double strategy'. Isolation from the mainstream has never been in any great favour in women's studies in Finland. Researchers and students have attempted to influence and change their disciplines from within. Women researchers work in the mainstream and cooperate with women colleagues in official and inofficial networks, and more recently in programmes of women's studies at universities.

Since the beginning of 1991, the Institute of Women's Studies at Åbo Akademi University in Turku has had a **Nordic coordinator for women's studies.** This is a three year post (1991–1993) financed by the Nordic Council of Ministers.

Researchers in women's studies usually have either tenure or fixed-term contract in mainstream departments or research institutions outside universities. University posts in women's studies remain few. In 1991, the University of Helsinki appointed the first professor of women's studies in Finland, but the post is for a fixed term of two years.

Women's studies are taught at every university. Most universities introduced programmes in women's studies towards the end of the 1980s. A need to coordinate interdisciplinary teaching led to the foundation of institutes of women's studies at three universities those – of Helsinki, Åbo Akademi in Turku, and Tampere. The purpose of these institutes is not to centralize all of the women's studies within their own walls at each university but rather to provide coordination and information within the university.

Funding for the teaching of women's studies at universities remains insufficient. In 1991, Parliament allocated money for that purpose for the first time. This was a non-recurrent grant of 300,000 marks.

A national Association for Women's Studies was founded in 1987. It publishes a scientific quarterly called Naistutkimus-Kvinnoforskning (Women's Studies).

A number of large **research projects** are underway. The most significant of them are two interdisciplinary studies: one on women and the welfare state, and the other on sexist practices at work.

The English edition of the Report contains an annex of the latest Finnish publications on women's studies and equality between women and men available in world languages, including a few published by Finnish authorities.

Advertizing

The Equality Act does **not prohibit discriminatory advertizing.** When the Act was passed, discriminatory advertizing was regarded as an equality problem, but it was felt that the advertizing branch should be gone an opportunity to prove whether self-regulation would be an effective means of combating discriminatory advertizing practices. More attention should be focused on this problem in the report to be given on the implementation of the Act during the first term of office of the Equality Ombudsman. A prohibition against discriminatory advertizing is contained in the Equality Act for the Åland Islands, which applies to advertisements produced in the territory of that province.

Organizations active in the advertizing industry set up a **council to supervise equality in advertizing** in 1989. To date, 42 cases have been reported to it of which sixteen were found to violate the rule on discrimination of the international regulations on advertizing. In August 1992, the composition of the council was supplemented by experts of sex equality and of consumer protection. The advertizing branch has provided the public with little information on the grievance procedure offered by the Council.

In November 1991 the National Consumer Administration carried out a joint study with the Equality Ombudsman based on interviews about **discriminatory advertizing practices.** More than a third of Finns were of the opinion that advertisements may exist in Finland which offend someone in Finland as a woman or a man. Those with more education and higher income and living in the urban areas shared this view more frequently; the majority of interviewees with a senior secondary school diploma were of this opinion. Eleven per cent of the women and four per cent of the men could recall particular advertisements from the past few years which had been offensive to them as women or men. Women and men in advertisements were generally thought to be represented very traditionally. A majority of 84 per cent thought that advertisements did not reflect real life. Two thirds of Finns believed that, in advertisements, the main task for women was to please and cater to men. The study revealed some differences between women and men. An example is that 51 per cent of women and 35 per cent men felt that advertisements gave one the impression that domestic work was only for women to do. 56 per cent of the women held the opinion that many advertisements portrayed women as less intelligent than men, while 61 per cent of the men disagreed partly or fully.

Attitudes

Negative attitudes to equality are well illustrated by an incident which took place in early 1990. A number of men who held prominent positions either in trade unions or employers' organizations sent a pornographic postcard to a woman member of the staff of the Office of the Equality Ombudsman. The matter was made public through a small item in a newspaper, causing a great deal of debate. The Coalition of Finnish Women's Associations for Joint Action – NYTKIS quickly collected 4,300 signatures, including 400 by men, in a petition expressing dismay at the events connected with the card. – The Council for Equality commissioned a study on the public debate around the issue.

SUB-PARAGRAPH B

The common responsibility for children

Since 1985 it has been possible for either the father or the mother to **have parental leave** once the child has been borne. The length of the parental leave is 158 working days. Fathers are entitled to six to twelve days of **paternity leave** following the birth of the child, which is deducted from the parental leave. In the collective agreement for 1990 and 1991, it was agreed for the first time that paternity leave be introduced which would not shorten parental leave and could be taken at any time chosen by the father. The length of the paternity leave proper is six days. In 1989 34 per cent of the fathers took paternity leave, and two per cent took parental leave following the birth of the child. In 1989, both paternity leave and parental leave was taken by two per cent of the fathers.[6] The change of attitudes necessary for a more balanced sharing of responsibility for children can be partly achieved through an improvement of the paternity leave scheme.

A statement on the father-child relationship was made in spring 1990 by the **Sub-committee of Men of the Council for Equality.** It emphasized the importance of a close relationship between father and child, not only for the child but also for the man. The options of paternity leave and parental leave help the father to become more involved in the life of the child directly after birth. The Sub-committee aims at making both forms of leave as well as leave of absence for the purpose of taking care of one's child more popular with men. For this purpose, it has made a proposal to the National Board of Social Affairs and Health for a campaign on the theme of father and child. The campaign will probably be launched in the context of the UN International Year of the Family 1994.

Article 6

States Parties shall take all appropriate measures, including legislation, to suppress all forms of traffic in women and exploitation of prostitution of women.

Finland signed the Convention for the Suppression of the Traffic of Persons and of the Exploitation of the Prostitution of Others of 1949 in 1953, and the Criminal Code was amended in 1961 to bring it into line with the treaty provisions. Since Finland ratified the Convention and incorporated it in the domestic law in 1972, the treaty provisions have been part of the legislation in force in Finland and been applicable in the same way as domestic law. While the provisions should be taken into account in the interpretation of domestic law, courts have rarely invoked the Convention. Similarly, its effect on the work of public authorities has been negligible.

The legislation on prostitution has remained unchanged since the first periodic report. A basic principle of law continues to be that prostitution per se, or the purchase and sale of sexual services, is not punishable. The Vagrancy Act, which was repealed in 1987, was the last piece of legislation aimed at controlling prostitutes, and the Criminal Code contains no norms on prostitution. In contrast, procuration and attempted procuration are punishable under Section 8 of Chapter 20 of the Criminal Code. For the purposes of the law, procuration is defined as the maintenance of a brothel or the inducement of a non-prostitute to become a prostitute. The same Section also applies to a person who promotes or exploits the way of life of a prostitute for gainful purposes.

Other provisions that may be applied are those of Section 9 of Chapter 20 on the violation of sexual morality in a public place. They can be applied to sex clubs, for example. Hotels and restaurants can be controlled under a decree governing hotels and restaurants in general. The Police Act gives powers to police in cases where prostitution endangers public order and safety.

The information on this subject is based on a study commissioned by the Advisory Board for International Human Rights Affairs.[7] The study indicates than from 1987 to 1991 the annual average for procuration cases which reached conviction was six. More than 90 per cent of the sentences were conditional. In cases where the offenses were particularly extensive or involved minors unconditional and harsher sentences were passed. It appears however that the procuration cases which have been detected and reached the courts represent only a fraction of the total number of cases, but the real figures are not known.

Prostitution is invisible in Finland. There is no widespread street prostitution or particular districts with concentration of visible prostitution. Similarly, organized procuration is not known to exist, and most Finnish prostitutes work on their own. As to foreigners who practise prostitution in Finland, procuration may be more frequent. A considerable number of Finnish prostitutes appear to operate part-time, and prostitution is almost exclusively centres on the larger cities. Prostitution seems to have increased somewhat from 1987 to 1991, because of a deteriorating economic situation and an increasing number of foreign prostitutes. As the most recent study on prostitution predates the repeal of the Vagrancy Act, no research data is however available on the present scale of prostitution.

In general, **authorities** have not taken any position on the existence of prostitution. No authority has clearly defined responsibility for the monitoring or managing of the situation or related measures. The past two years have however seen a change in the general attitude to prostitution in the sense that a number of key authorities have began to acknowledge the existence of the phenomenon. The committee on the repeal of the Vagrancy Act proposed that the situation be monitored, and that social work to identify the prostitutes be introduced together with other types of services.[8] These proposals have not been put into practice. The only advice centre for prostitutes was founded as private initiative in early 1990 by the Deaconess Institute of Helsinki.

One of the new forms of exploiting prostitution is **the so-called sex tourism.** Sex holidays are not directly marketed in general newspapers and magazines by the largest tour operators, but some reference to them may be made in travel brochures, and one or two smaller operators have organized sex holidays. Overt publicity for sex tours is made in men's magazines. Finland is the only Nordic country which is a member of the World Tourist Organization, which has in cooperation with UNESCO prepared a code of conduct against sex tourism.

Another recent phenomenon is a form of trading in women through offering them as wives in mail-order catalogues. This type of trade is not explicitly prohibited under Finnish law.

Article 7

States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in the political and public life of the country and, in particular, shall ensure, on equal terms with men, the right:

(a) To vote in all elections and public referenda and to be eligible for election to all publicly elected bodies;

(b) To participate in the formulation of government policy and the implementation thereof and to hold public office and perform all public functions at all levels of government;

(c) To participate in non-governmental organisations and associations concerned with the public and political life of the country.

SUB-PARAGRAPH A

Representational democracy

Finland has an electoral system based on **proportional representation.** The candidates for elections are nominated by registered political parties, and the nominations are partly made on the basis of a vote taken by members. Candidates may also be nominated by a minimum of 100 electors living in the same district. In the elections proper the candidates of a particular party or electoral coalition gain priority over one another in the proportion of the number of votes they have received. This type of electoral system where individual lists are used has led to the election of a considerable number of women MPs. The more numerous the women candidates, the greater the number of elected women.

In the 1991 **parliamentary elections 38.5 per cent (77/200)** of the elected MPs were women. In some parties, half or even more of the MPs are women, and women have also been appointed to leading positions within the parliamentary groups of some parties. Parliament has fourteen committees, with only two being chaired by women. Of the 222 committee seats, women have 78.

In negotiations on the government platform the Council for Equality made a number of demands, including that the new government should reflect the large proportion of women in Parliament.

Following the 1991 elections women MPs have had regular meetings, attended also by the Minister for Equality and equality authorities.

TABLE 1. Parliamentary elections in 1907, 1972, 1983 and 1991

Year	Voter turnout Women %	Voter turnout Men %	Women % of candidates	Women % of elected MPs	Number of women
1907	–	–	–	10	19
1972	81	82	21	22	43
1983	75	76	30	31	62
1991	73	71	41	39	77

Source: Statistics Finland

With the municipal elections of autumn 1992 the allocation of economic resources will become a key issue as far as equality of women and men is concerned, because more decision-making powers in economic matters will be delegated to the municipal level and the number of municipal boards will decrease. Women account for more than a quarter of the municipal councillors, 22 per cent of the members of municipal boards in different administrative sectors, and not more than six per cent of the chairpersons. On the boards that exercise a lot of independent economic power, the proportion of women is small.

SUB-PARAGRAPH B

Government

Initially, of the seventeen ministers in the Government which was appointed after the elections, seven were women; currently there are six women in the Government. They hold the offices of Ministers of Justice, Defence, Education, Culture, the Environment, and Housing. The duties of the Minister for Equality are carried out by the Minister of Defence. While doing so, she is Minister at the Ministry for Social Affairs and Health, which is the competent Ministry in matters relating to equality. While a considerable number of Ministers are women, their status in the decision-making process within the Government does not reflect their number. An important part of the decisions are taken in the Government committees, and regular or ad hoc working groups established for specific purposes. There are five committees, two regular working groups and six ad hoc working groups, with a total of 84 seats. Ten men ministers have 68 seats between themselves, and seven women ministers have sixteen seats. Two women act as chairpersons of a committee. There is no woman on the Committee for Foreign Affairs nor in the Working Groups for regional policy, the media, rural policy and that for the preparation of the energy report. Following a debate on the issue, two women ministers became members of the Working Group on European Integration in March 1992.

Both Governments in power during the reporting period made reference to the promotion of equality in their **platform.** The platform of the Government of Prime Minister Harri Holkeri (1987–1991) stated that the effectiveness of the Equality Act would be monitored and the necessary amendments be made, and that women's studies would be encouraged. The platform of the Government of Prime Minister Esko Aho, which was appointed in spring 1991, says that the Government will discuss action to promote equal pay on the basis of the proposals of a working group founded by trade unions and employers' organizations for the evaluation of jobs. Activities of the working group charged with the evaluation of the requirements of different types of work are reported under Article 11.

Women as employees in state administration

Women make up 43 per cent of the staff in state administration. Over 90 per cent of the office workers are women. In spite of the high educational standards of women, very few women have reached senior positions in state administration. This is illustrated by the fact that the highest-ranking officials in ministries are all men, and there are only two women (less than three per cent) among the second highest officials. However, in April 1992 a woman was appointed Governor of the Bank of Finland.

The Council of State made in March 1991 a policy decision on the further development of state staff policy and administration. Consequently, a project to advance management resources was launched by the Ministry of Finance in February 1992. In the framework of the project, such questions as the recruitment and selection procedures of those entering management positions within state administration will be addressed. A reform of these procedures as well as of the requirements for nominations to office will be carried out. It is through improved recruitment and selection practices that women's willingness to apply for and accept senior posts in state administration should be encouraged.

TABLE 2. The number and proportion of women in senior positions of permanent secretaries, directors general, heads of department, heads of division, chief counsellors and other heads of office at ministries in 1960, 1970, 1981 and 1991.

Year	Number of women	Women, %	Senior officals total
1960	3	2.3	131
1970	9	4.9	184
1981	25	8.2	306
199	67	16.4	409

Source: Eva Hänninen-Salmelin, International Women's Management Istitute 1992. Data calculated from the Finnish directory of public officials.

Courts of law

Of the 21 members of the Supreme Court, three are women. In the Supreme Administrative Court, one of the 21 members is a woman. The chairpersons of both Courts are men. In 1990, the percentage of women in senior positions in the court system was as follows: 30 per cent in the Supreme Court, 36 per cent in the Supreme Administrative Court, 37 per cent in Courts of Appeal, and 22 per cent in lower curts.

Women as members of committees and working groups

Seventeen per cent of the committees established in 1989 had no women members, while in 1990, less than seven per cent of the committees had no women. Committees without women members were in 1990 established by the Ministry of Trade and Industry and the Ministry of Transport and Communications. In recent years, women appointed to committees have accounted for a fifth of the members. In 1990, 22 per cent of members of the committees established were women. Approximately a half the committees have women as chairpersons. As regards members and chairpersons of working groups, the proportions of women is more or less the same as those for the committees. Commissions given to one person to examine specific issues are increasing, replacing committee work. For practical reasons, the Equality Act cannot be applied to these commissions, which are even called one-man committees. These commissions have been given to men.

SUB-PARAGRAPH C

Activities of non-governmental organizations

Women's organizations have founded a **Coalition of Finnish Women's Associations for Joint Action (NYTKIS)** to increase participation by women in decision-making processes and structures. The Coalition is composed of representatives of all political women's organizations, important nonpolitical groups, women researchers, and the Women's Movement, which participated in the 1991 elections as a women's party. The member organizations of NYTKIS have a total membership of 600,000. Prior to the 1991 elections, NYTKIS drew attention to the importance of making women visible in the publicity campaigns for candidates. The National Council of Women in Finland conducted a campaign in support of women candidates under a slogan "Let's vote a hundred women to Parliament".

In August 1994 a Nordic women's forum will be held in Turku, with an anticipated participation of 10,000 people. It is hoped that the forum, the largest event ever organized by the Nordic Council, will attract particularly young people and men with equality projects of their own.

Article 8

States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to ensure to women, on equal terms with men, and without any discrimination, the opportunity to represent their Governments at the international level and to participate in the work of international organizations.

Participation of Finnish women in international cooperation has not been the subject of any studies or measures in public administration. In their recent comments, women's organizations and women politicians have increasingly drawn attention to the fact that few or no women at all have been involved in the most important and wide-ranging negotiations of international nature, such as those on European economic integration.

International activities and participation therein are gender-segregated to a considerable extent. A prevailing state of affairs is that women's smaller proportion of management positions is reflected in a lesser degree of participation in decision-making processes at the international level, because participation in the work of international organizations is seen as part of the management-level responsibilities. In contrast, the auxiliary and preparatory work necessary for participation in international cooperation is often carried out by women.

The Working Group for the preparation of this report has proposed that the working group established by the Ministry for Foreign Affairs to produce a plan for functional equality examine, together with their counterparts from other ministries, in a wider context the questions relating to participation by women in international cooperation and propose action to increase it.

Article 9

1. States Parties shall grant women equal rights with men to acquire, change or retain their nationality. They shall ensure in particular that neither marriage to an alien nor change of nationality by the husband during marriage shall automatically change the nationality of the wife, render her stateless or force upon her the nationality of the husband.
2. States Parties shall grant women equal rights with respect to the nationality of their children.

The legislation on citizenship has remained unchanged since the initial report. The provisions governing family relations of international nature are examined under Article 16.

Article 10

States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in order to ensure to them equal rights with men in the field of education and in particular to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women:

(a) The same conditions for career and vocational guidance, for access to studies and for the achievement of diplomas in educational establishments of all categories in rural as well as in urban areas; this equality shall be ensured in pre-school, general, technical, professional and higher technical education, as well as in all types of vocational training:

(b) Access to the same curricula, the same examinations, teaching staff with qualifications of the same standard and school premises and equipment of the same quality;

(c) The elimination of any stereotyped concept of the roles of men and women at all levels and in all forms of education by encouraging coeducation and other types of education which will help to achieve this aim and, in particular, by the revision of textbooks and school programmes and the adaptation of teaching methods;

(d) The same opportunities to benefit from scholarships and other study grants;

(e) The same opportunities for access to programmes of continuing education, including adult and functional literacy programmes, particularly those

aimed at reducing, at the earliest possible time, any gap in education existing between men and women;

(f) *The reduction of female student dropout rates and the organization of programmes for girls and women who have left school prematurely;*

(g) *The same opportunities to participate actively in sport and physical education;*

(h) *Access to specific educational information to help to ensure the health and wellbeing of families, including information and advice om family planning.*

SUB-PARAGRAPH A)

Efforts are being made, through career counselling given by schools, to diminish gender-segregation prevailing in the choice of career. From 1985 to 1989 Finland was involved in a Nordic pilot project ("AVAA") to extend career choices by girls and women to fields dominated by men.

When the educational level of the entire population is examined, it is discovered that women and men are now at the same level. In 1989, two million people had completed senior secondary school or vocational education or had a university degree, and some half of them were women. Women have reached a **high level of general education.** In the working-age population women have a senior secondary school diploma more frequently than men, a circumstance that will prevail in the future, because 60 per cent of senior secondary level students are women.

Men still have the majority of masters' degrees (60 per cent), but women are quickly catching up; since 1986, the number of women graduating from universities has exceeded that of men. For example, in 1989 women represented 54 per cent of students who obtained a master's degree and 34 per cent of those with a higher degree. The proportion of women who have a doctorate has been steadily increasing since 1976.

The percentage of women in the senior faculty of universities remains small.

TABLE 3. The percentage of women in the faculty of universities in 1985 and 1990.

	1985 %	1990 %
Professors	7	10
Assistant professors	13	18
Senior assistants	21	26
Assistants	31	36
Lectures	42	44

The figures include persons holding the position on a temporary basis. The proportion of women having tenure is generally smaller. In 1990, for example, women accounted for 7.4 per cent of professors with tenure and 13 per cent of assistant professors with tenure.

Source: Teuvo Räty, Naistutkimustiedote (Newsletter on women's studies 3/1991

Nevertheless, **the choice of fields of study** is segregated by gender. The proportion of women is the largest in healthcare, and quite considerable in the fields of pharmacy and veterinary science. Similarly, students in teacher training are predominantly women. Following the abolition from teacher training of quotas in favour of men as a consequence of the Equality Act, it was predicted that the number of men entering teacher training would decrease from 40 per cent to ten per cent, but this did not happen. In 1989 the proportion of men was eighteen per cent; by 1990 it reached 20 per cent.

At the university level, clearly the smallest proportion of women can be found in the scientific and technical fields. In 1990 the percentage was seventeen; eighteen per cent of the students working on a master's degree were women, and fourteen per cent of those pursuing further studies, respectively.

More women than men now undergo **vocational or professional education.** In 1989 women received 55 per cent of the diplomas awarded for completed vocational training. The choice of field of study continues to be clearly gendersegregated. To cite an example, it was not until 1973 that the first women were recruited and trained to become police officers. The plan to enhance functional equality in education aims at influencing the guidance and selection of students in such a way as to diminish gendersegregated choice of career. Special attention will be paid in the various experimental education schemes for young people and in the experiment of polytechnics to the creation of study programmes that encourage desegregation.

SUB-PARAGRAPHS B) AND C)

Girls and boys are taught in the same subjects at school, with one exception. Starting on fourth grade, girls are taught in textile work, and boys in technical work. As proposed by the Ministry of Education, the teaching of handiwork will be desegregated as a result of changes to be introduced in 1994 in the number of lessons to be devoted to each subject in the comprehensive school and senior secondary school.

Education towards equality in the training of teachers will be intensified through participation in a Nordic project on the subject (NORDLILIA) from 1992 to 1994.

SUB-PARAGRAPH D)

A number of changes have been introduced in the financial aid system for students. The content of aid and grounds for granting it now differ somewhat in vocational and professional education from those at the university level. In its basic form, the aid is still composed of a grant paid from public funds and a loan. As of July 1992, adult students who have children under eighteen no longer receive an extra allowance. Also, the the interest on student loans is no longer state subsidised.

However, students with children receive a higher grant. At the university level, the fact the student has a family has no other effect on the aid. The interest rate and the arrangements for paying back the loan are left for the student and the bank to settle between themselves. At the secondary level, the interest on student loans continues to be subsidized by the state. The interests on the loans of students who receive maternity or parental allowance are paid by the state. The income and property of the spouse no longer affect the right of students aged 30 or more to obtain financial aid.

People aged between 30 and 54 are entitled to financial aid for study purposes provided they have not been studied for the previous five years. In 1991, some 11,000 people were receiving this type of aid, and the number is expected to rise to 20,000 in 1992. Approximately 90 per cent of the recipients are women.

SUB-PARAGRAPH F)

The dropout rate at the basic level of education is very low nowadays. Law provides for compulsory education until the age of sixteen. The dropout rate at the upper secondary level was seven per cent in 1988. Somewhat fewer women leave school prematurely than men.

Article 11

1. States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in the field of employment in order to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women, the same rights, in particular:
(a) The right to work as an inalienable right of all human beings;
(b) The right to the same employment opportunities, including the application of the same criteria for selection in matters of employment;
(c) The right to free choice of profession and employment, the right to promotion, job security and all benefits and conditions of service and the right to receive vocational training and retraining, including apprenticeships. advanced vocational training and recurrent training;
(d) The right to equal remuneration, including benefits, and to equal treatment in respect of work of equal value, as well as equality of treatment in the evaluation of the quality of work;
(e) The right to social security particularly in cases of retirement, unemployment, sickness, invalidity and old age and other incapacity to work as well as the right to paid leave;
(f) The right to protection of health and to safety in working conditions, including the safeguarding of the function of reproduction.
2. In order to prevent discrimination against women on the grounds of marriage or maternity and to ensure their effective right to work, States Parties shall take appropriate measures:
(a) To prohibit, subject to the imposition of sanctions, dismissal on the grounds of pregnancy or of maternity leave and discrimination in dismissals on the basis of marital status;
(b) To introduce maternity leave with pay or with comparable social benefits without loss of former employment, seniority or social allowances;
(c) To encourage the provision of the necessary supporting social services to enable parents to combine family obligations with work responsibilities and participation in public life, in particular through promoting the establishment and development of a network of child-care facilities;
(d) To provide special protection to women during pregnancy in types of work proved to be harmful to them.
3. Protective legislation relating to matters covered in this article shall be reviewed periodically in the light of scientific and technological knowledge and shall be revised, repealed or extended as necessary.

PARAGRAPH 1

SUB-PARAGRAPH A)

Gainful employment and unemployment rates among women

Women in Finland are gainfully employed nearly as often as men. In 1991 some 72 per cent of the women in the working age population and 78 per cent of the men respectively were part of the labour force. Because the age of retirement in Finland is 65 years, the labour force participation rates in Finland are usually examined in terms of population from fifteen to 64 years of age. The statistics for these age groups are given in Annex to the Second Periodic Report: Statistical Data.

In Finland, both women and men work on a full-time basis. In 1991 the proportion of women working part-time was ten per cent and that of men five per cent respectively.

The large proportion of women who are gainfully employed is also reflected in a high percentage of the entire labour force. The Finnish labour force consisted in 1991 of 2.533,000 persons, 48 per cent of whom were women. Women made up 51 per cent of the salary and wage earners, or 40,000 persons more than men.

Unlike most European countries in the 1980s, Finland had a lower rate of undisguised unemployment for women than for men. The rate of unemployment for women has remained constantly lower than that for men, irrespective of economic booms or recessions. However, the rate of unemployment among women over 55 has been higher than the rate among men of the same age.

As a result of economic recession, unemployment as a whole began rapidly increasing towards the end of 1990, reaching a post-war high a year later. The rate of unemployment more than doubled compared to 1990. Every month, an average of 193,000 persons were unemployed: 124,000 men and 69,000 women. The rates of unemployment for men reached nine per cent and for women nearly six per cent. In early 1992 the rate of unemployment continued to rise: it was over fourteen per cent for men, and nearly ten per cent for women. In autumn 1992 some 38 per cent of the unemployed are women.

As yet, the occupations in the industrial and building sectors dominated by men have been hit hardest by the recession. This explains why the rate of unemployment has risen more sharply for men. It is likely that with the continuation of recession unemployment will increase in sectors and professions dominated by women. In 1992 unemployment is spreading to the service sectors, both private and public, which have traditionally employed a lot of women.

Austerity measures introduced or to be introduced in the public sector mostly affect the employment rate among women, because some two-thirds of all municipal officials, for example, are women. There are no accurate data or estimates available on the effects of the reduction of workforce in the public sector on the rate of employment among women. A Ministry of Labour working group on the unemployment among women estimates that particularly the developments in the public sector will rapidly increase unemployment among women. Moreover, austerity measures targeted on welfare services, such as day care, will make it increasingly difficult for women to go out to work and participate in education and training. Unemployment is a problem especially among women who have a poor education or are over 40 years old. According to the working group, education and training provide the best means available to the labour authorities of improving the situation of unemployed women.[9]

TABLE 4. Unemployment rates from 1987 to 1992.

Year	Unemployed total	Women	Women, %	Unemployment rates		
				Total	Men	Women
1987	130 000	53 000	40,8	5,1	5,8	4,3
1988	116 000	48 000	41,1	4,5	5,1	4,0
1989	89 000	41 000	46,1	3,5	3,6	3,3
1990	88 000	34 000	38,6	3,4	4,0	2,8
1991	193 000	69 000	35,8	7,6	9,3	5,7
1992 1 nelj.	296 000	105 000	35,4	12,0	14,4	9,9
1992 2 nelj	312 000	120 000	38,4	12,3	14,4	9,9

Source: Study on labour force, Statistics Finland

If the problem of unemployment is examined in a wider context taking into account not only open unemployment but also disguised unemployment and underemployment, it will be seen that unemployment is a greater problem for women than it is for men. In the category of disguised unemployment are those who do not actively seek employment but would like to have a job and would be able to accept one within two week's time if suitable work was available in the area where they live. People falling within the category of underemployed are those who are without work part of the week as well as those part-time workers who would like to work full time. Both disguised unemployment and underemployment are more common among women than they are among men. In 1991 women represented 56 per cent in the former category and some 51 per cent of the latter. In autumn 1989 half the women in the first category were students, and a third were taking care of their children at home.

TABLE 5. Disguised unemployment and underemployment (among people of 15 to 64 years of age) in 1983, 1989 and 1991.

	Year	Total	Women	Women, %
Disguised	1983	50 000	34 000	68
	1989	50 000	28 000	56
	1991	91 000	51 000	56
Unemployment	1983	59 000	38 000	64
	1989	48 000	31 000	64,6
	1991	83 000	42 000	50,6

Source: Annual interwiews with labour force 1983 and 1989.

In April 1991 a total of 54,125 people were on unemployment pension, 55 per cent of them being women. These people are not included in the labour force, which means that they are not indicated in the statistics for unemployment. 18,431 persons were undergoing re-training; 44 per cent of them were women.

Fixed-term contracts are more common among young people and women than among men. In recent years, they have increasingly become a feature of women's work.

SUB-PARAGRAPH B)

In 1988 the Hours of Work Act was amended to remove the prohibition against the employment of women in night shifts.

In December 1991, Section 58 of the Mining Act and Section 37 of the Safety at Work Act were repealed. The former prohibited employing women in mines for work carried out underground, and the latter contained a prohibition against employing women for underground work comparable to mining. Also amended was an act prohibiting the use of white lead and lead sulphate for certain painting purposes; the prohibition against employing women as professional house-painters in cases where lead white and lead sulphate was used was removed.

SUB-PARAGRAPH C)

Right to the free choice of work and career

Public offices are equally open to women and men, and under the Equality Act no vacancy in the private sector can be announced exclusively for women or men on any other than weighty and acceptable grounds relating to the nature of the work.

An exception to the rule of public offices open to both sexes are those **offices at the Ministry of Defence, in the Armed Forces and in the Border Guards** which require military training. As this training is only given to men, it is only men who can be appointed to those offices. Currently, the competence of an army officer is required for eleven of the 210 offices at the Ministry of Defence. Of the some 5,100 posts of a civilian nature, 3,900 are held by women. New offices were opened to women with the removal of military service from the qualifications for military doctors, dentists, veterinarians, financial officers and conductors as regards women. Now only certain posts of special officers, chaplains and military personnel proper are reserved for men.

Gender-segregated labour market

The Finnish labour market remains gender-segregated. Women comprise approximately 60 per cent of the labour force in the service sector, while the industrial and building sectors are dominated by men. The segregation extends to occupations and specific tasks. Both women and men favour occupations where the other sex is in a minority. The census of 1985 showed that only nine per cent of the population working full time were in occupations where the share of women and men varied from 40 to 60 per cent. As many as 43 per cent of the employees were in occupations with no more than a five- per cent representation of the other sex. No dramatic change has taken place in the gender-segregation of the labour market, although employees who have made untraditional choices have entered practically every occupation dominated by the other sex.[10]

Another illustration of the gender-segregated labour market are the differences in the positions which women and men occupy in the official hierarchies. Men advance rapidly and attain higher positions than women. Not even an increase of women students in certain academic fields, such as medicine, veterinary science, and law, has essentially diminished the segregation in the labour market; the fact that women share the same field of study with men does not ensure that women have the same opportunities at work. The differences emerge after the first years in the labour market. An example is the labour market of women engineers which exists on the fringes of the profession, if not beyond it. Women lawyers are scarce in the well-paid positions which command a lot of status in the private sector, and in the public sector they can be found in the middle or lower echelons of the hierarchy.

Recent studies indicate that the quality of working life for women has deteriorated considerably in some respects. **Time pressures and stress have become a more prevalent feature of jobs held by women.**[11] But there are also positive developments. One is that, while women have had fewer possibilities to influence their work, some progress has taken place in this respect. Another positive sign is that the monotony typical of so much of the industrial work carried out by women has diminished with a general decrease of industrial work by women following an expansion of the service sector that employs more women.

There has been an increase in in-house training given by the employer in the 1980s. The rate of participation by women in this training has risen more rapidly than the rate for men. In 1990 a slightly larger proportion of women, 44 per cent, than of men, 42 per cent attended courses and classes arranged by their employer. The time spent in training is somewhat shorter for women than for men (6.3 vs 7.7 days of training).

SUB-PARAGRAPH D)

Earnings

The differences between women's and men's earnings diminished both proportionally and in real terms in the 1970s until the beginning of the 1980s. In 1982 or 1983 this positive development turned. The pay differentials between women and men began to grow in real terms in most sectors. The trend towards the narrowing of the differential in relative terms stabilized around the level reached at the beginning of the 1980s.

At the beginning of 1991, the differential between average earnings by women for regular working hours and those by men amounted to 2,040 marks, whereas at the beginning of 1985 it had been 1,737 marks (in terms of the 1991 value). The difference in marks had grown by a fifth. The increase of pay differentials seems to have stopped by late 1991, possibly as a result of the recession. It is however too early to say whether the situation remains stable or improves (cf. TABLE 6).

TABLE 6. Pay differentials between women and men 1985–1991 (1st qr.)

Year (1st qr)	Pay differential in the money of 1991 (4th qr) FIM	Women's pay as percentage of men's pay
1985	1 737	79,3
1988	1 869	79,7
1991, 1st qr	2 094	79,6
1991, 4th qr	1 999	80,5

Source: Marja-Liisa Anttalainen, Olennainen työssä – Background material to a meeting on the essential aspects of working life. The Council for Equality. The data is based on information collected by Statistics Finland and cover over 60 per cent of the employees in the private.

The Finnish labour market is characterized by a kind of gender-determined pay structure. This means that the women's pay scale starts where the mens' scale ends. In nearly all sectors, some two-thirds of women remain below a level that two thirds of men exceed. In 1990 this level for salaried employees in the employment of the state was 8,000 marks a month. 62 per cent of the women earned less and 74 per cent of the men earned more than this salary. Among the municipal employees in 1989, this line was drawn at 7,700 marks a month: 69 per cent of the women were below it, and 67 per cent of the men exceeded it.[12]

In no profession do women's earnings exceed those of men, not even in professions clearly dominated by women. Pay differentials are the smallest in professions which are dominated by women and grow larger depending on the proportion of men in the professions. Men have the highest earnings in professions with the fewest women. The differentials in the private sector are greater than those in the public sector.

The differentials grow at first with a rise in the level of education, but become smaller for university graduates. A rise in educational standards contributes to a higher pay for women more distinctly than is the case for men. Men earn higher salaries even where their educational standards are low. Education therefore has greater significance for women than for men.[13]

New studies show that the pay differentials between women and men are not attributable solely to genderdifferentiation in the choice of career, to work experience or educational background. According to the studies, the differentials are almost entirely due to gender.[14] Women are somewhat more often unionized than men, and their daily working hours as well as the time spent working during a lifetime are nearly the same. The characteristics of women workers: unionization, rise in educational standards, full-time work, and very short absences from the labour force have not served considerably to narrowed the pay differentials between the sexes.

One of the key elements proposed to reduce pay differences is **a re-evaluation of jobs** taking more account of the typical features of jobs held by women when assessing the requirements for and value of different types of work. This means that pay differentials are attributed to the fact the features typical of work carried out by women are not valued as criteria for pay.

In the collective agreement for 1990 to 1991 the parties agreed to establish a working group with a frame of reference to

- examine the current criteria for the evaluation of work
- make proposals based on their examination taking particularly into account the branches and jobs where women workers are predominant, and
- look into possibilities of making cross-sectoral comparisons of requirements for job.

The platform adopted by the Government of Prime Minister Esko Aho on 26 April 1991 states that, as soon as the working group has submitted its findings, the government will take the steps necessary to promote the "equal pay for equal work or for work of equal value" principle in the labour market in general and in the public sector in particular. The measures which the Government agreed to take as part of the collective agreement for 1992 and 1993 include a pilot study based on the findings of the working group for the evaluation of jobs.

Following the conclusion of the collective agreement for 1992 and 1993 the mandate of the working group was extended to establish whether and to what degree the requirements of various types of work can be applied in a pilot study at workplaces.

The working group submitted its interim report in March 1992. The report proposes that pay scales should in essence be based on the specific requirements necessary for each job. The working group devised a new framework for job evaluation, introducing as its central elements such criteria as ability, responsibility, work-load and working conditions. The work-load factor contains not only physical work-load but also psychological and emotional pressures. The concept of responsibility covers responsibility both for economic factors and for people. The working group called on the labour organizations, employers' associations and the state to increase studies into the evaluation of work requirements and to formulate evaluation criteria for specific branches and fields.[15]

SUB-PARAGRAPH E)

Social security during unemployment

Social security for the unemployed consists of a meanstested basic daily allowance paid from public funds and an earnings-related daily allowance which may be claimed by the members of unemployment funds run by trade unions. Unemployed women find themselves in a difficult situation in cases where they are not entitled to an earningsrelated allowance and are have to rely on the basic allowance. The basic allowance is means-tested in the sense that it depends on the earnings of the spouse. Because of the pay differentials between women and men, this means test has different implications for women and men. Married women, more often than married men, are not entitled to unemployment benefit due to the spouse's size of income and are, perhaps for the first time in their lives, forced to depend financially on their spouses. The means-tested unemployment benefit which makes an unemployed person, in most cases, a woman, dependent on the income of another person, is not in harmony with the principle that every person should have equal and independent right to unemployment benefit. For this purpose, a working group at the Ministry of Labour looking into the possibilities of alleviating unemployment among women has proposed to the Ministry for Social Affairs and Health that the criteria of qualifying for unemployment benefit be reformulated and the linkage to the spouse's income be abolished.[16]

The adjustment of the amount of unemployment benefit according to earnings can be seen favourable to those with higher income, that is, men. In 1990 women's average earnings-related daily allowance was 77.8 per cent of men's earnings.

According to law, in order to be entitled to the allowance the person must be available for employment, must accept employment when offered, unless she/

he has adequate reason not to accept it, must not resign a job without valid reason, must not have long interruptions in employment without acceptable reasons and must not act in such a way that employment contract is not made in the first place. As women, more often than men, are tied up with the care of children, whether or not women receive unemployment benefit depends in practice on the interpretation of the requirement; whether the interpretation takes account of the need to accommodate family and work. It appears that a far too rigid and narrow interpretation is now placed on these requirements to effectively consider the responsibilities that the unemployed have for their children.[17]

Pensions

Due to smaller earnings and shorter periods of accruement, women have lower pensions than men. At the end of June 1991, the average of old-age pension payments made by employee pension institutes was 1,270 marks a month for women and 2,716 marks for men. A typical feature of Finnish working life is premature retirement. Only 24 per cent of the men and 29 per cent of the women retiring in 1990 had reached the age of 65 (the general age of retirement under various old-age pension schemes); the rest retired at an earlier age. Applications by women for early retirement are dismissed one and a half times more often than applications by men. These differences between the sexes have existed as long as the pension acts have been in force. The greatest differences can be found in decisions on disability pensions and individual early pensions where authorities can exercise discretion in determining the applicant's work performance and capability to continue working.

In 1990 amendments to the Survivors' Pension Act entered into force. As amended, the Act now provides for survivors' pension also for men. Another important change is that the survivor's own pension is taken into account when calculating the amount of the survivors' pension. The changes lowered the pensions of widows, but the relative reductions in the pensions of widowers were clearly larger.

SUB-PARAGRAPH 1

Sexual harassment

There is no official or legal definition for **sexual harassment** in Finland. As discussion, research and legal regulation relating to this phenomenon is only starting, the following fairly loose definition is being used: Sexual harassment

- refers to physical or verbal approaches of a sexual nature
- is unsolicited and one-sided

- often involves direct or indirect threats or promises, or makes the atmosphere at the workplace oppressive
- has negative repercussions for the victim.[18]

Laws applicable to sexual harassment at work are the Equality Act, the Protection of Labour Act, and the Act relating to the cooperation between employees and employers in enterprises. Only two or three cases of sexual harassment are known from Finnish court practice. Some ten cases have been submitted to the Equality Ombudsman since the entry into force of the Equality Act.

Sexual harassment at work is a **question of discrimination.** Studies show that it is women considerably more often than men who become targets of sexual harassment at work. The fact that women generally occupy an inferior position in the hierarchy makes a certain degree of harassment possible, but sexual harassment may also be used as a means of showing a woman her place in the hierarchy.

The Finnish Equality Act does not contain specific provisions on sexual harassment, but the prohibition against discrimination covers sexual harassment. An employer who has learned of sexual harassment at the workplace and allows it to continue violates the prohibition in the Act.

When adopting the Equality Act Parliament required that the Government submit a report to it five years after the entry into force of the Act on such questions as sexual harassment. In autumn 1991 the Ministry for Social Affairs and Health established a committee to examine the needs for amending the Equality Act. The committee will determine whether provisions relating to sexual harassment will be included in the Act.

Sexual harassment impairs atmosphere at the workplace and decreases motivation. In the worst cases it leads to illness and resignations, and nearly always to reduced work performance. Because of its consequences, sexual harassment must be seen a question of relating to the **protection of labour.** In 1988 an extensive partial reform of the Protection of Labour Act was introduced which covers psychological protection of labour to a greater degree than was the case earlier. Following the reform, the Act applies to sexual harassment more clearly than earlier.

The Office of the Equality Ombudsman launched in 1989 a study on sexual harassment at the workplace. Material for the study was collected by placing advertisements in newspapers inviting victims to report their experience to the Office and by interviewing the victims. Preliminary findings of the study reveal a number of characteristics of sexual harassment at the workplace.

First, sexual harassment at the workplace frequently entails the **use and the abuse of power.** Women consider that one of the most striking problems relating to this abuse of power is that it involves the challenging of their professional competence. Second, sexual harassment is a **hidden phenomenon.** It has not, until recently, been much discussed in public, it generally takes place without eye-witnesses, and those involved seldom talk about it. In many cases women blame themselves for it. Third, the **modes of harassment and the interpretations assigned to it vary from field to field and workplace to workplace.** In some cases sexual harassment is seen as part of the conditions of employment and accepted as integral to the particular field of work or job description. This seems to be the case, for example, in healthcare. Fourth, sexual harassment at work sometimes runs parallel to and sometimes coincides with **psychological violence at work.** Another element that was revealed in the study is that in many cases the harassment **is a process.** In some processes the victim is able to put an end to the harassment, others run their course and end. In many instances, however, the solutions exact a high price, such as a change of jobs or premature retirement. The consequences of harassment seem to be less serious in cases where early action is taken to stop it.

SUB-PARAGRAPH C)

Day care

The provision of day care for children is a municipal responsibility. The Day Care Act of 1973 aims at providing **communal day care** to all children in need of it. This covers children under school age and those of school age who have no other afternoon care because of their parents' working hours or for other reason.

In 1985 an Act on Home Care Allowance entered into force. It is based on the principle that public funds are provided to give parents the freedom of choice in arranging for the care of **their children under three years of age.** Parents may choose between placing their child in communal day care or receiving a home care allowance for taking care of their child at home. The allowance may also be used to cover some of the costs of private day care. Taking caring of one's child at home with the help of a home care allowance does not terminate employment or, since 1991, lower employee pension.

In 1990 the right to communal day care was extended to cover all children under three. The municipal day care system consists of day care given at day care centres and of care provided in their own homes by child-minders employed by the municipalities.

Day care is currently available for 226,000 children. Places can be provided to 48,000 children under three. This represents a fourth of all children under three years of age. Another fourth is taken care of at home by a parent receiving a parental allowance and nearly a half by a parent receiving a home care allowance. For children over three, there are about 160,000 day care places, a fifth of which are for part of the day. Part-day places are available for 18,000 children.

A report by the Ministry for Social Affairs and Health reveals that in early 1990 day care was available for one in two children of school age. 95 per cent of those in need of full-day care and 98 per cent of those requiring partday care actually received it. Day care was arranged for all children as provided by law in 66 per cent of the municipalities, and for under three-year-olds by nearly all the municipalities. A shortage continues to exist in some municipalities of day care places for children over three. The shortage is particularly severe in large cities in Southern Finland which do not have enough staff for day care centres.

Within the past five years, the number of day care places has increased by 43,000, a third being for places for children under three. In 1985 15,800 families received a home care allowance; by 1990 the figure had risen by 58,000.

Since the end of 1988, the number of children under three in day care has risen by 2,200 children. Within the same period the number of children taken care of at home with the support of a home care allowance has gone up by 21,000 children. By January 1990 more than 44 municipalities offered a benefit to supplement home care allowance. Many municipalities have improved their scheme of municipal supplementary benefit in such a way that the home care allowance now provides a real alternative to communal day care.[19]

According to an act passed by Parliament in 1991 the right to day care will be further extended. As of 1993, day care must be provided to all children under four, and by August 1995 to all children under school age. The platform of the current Government states that the provision of home care allowance will be extended in line with the extension of the right to day care. This would mean that by August 1995 all children under five would be covered by care provided by or financially supported by society. However, in the autumn of 1992 the Government has envisaged austerity measures for the budget of 1993 and decided to propose to Parliament that the entry into force of the act extending the right to day care be postponed.

SUB-PARAGRAPH D)

Protection of pregnant employees

In July 1991 an amendment to the Employment Contracts Act entered into force with the purpose of improving the **protection of pregnant employees against risks in the working environment.** In cases where a chemical substance, radiation or communicable disease related to the work or the circumstances at the workplace can be deemed to endanger the pregnancy or the development of the foetus the employer must try to transfer the employee to other suitable tasks until maternity leave. If the risk factors cannot be removed or the transfer is impossible, the employee is entitled to special maternity leave. While on special maternity leave the employee enjoys the same protection as do pregnant employees in general. Thus, priority is given to finding the employee the kind of work where she is safe. If this is not possible, the employee right to special maternity allowance and go on special maternity leave.

It is estimated that some 12,000 to 13,000 women work in fields where they may be exposed to factors harmful to the development of the foetus. From 800 to 900 women a year become pregnant, and 500 of them are estimated to be in need of special maternity leave. They mainly work in small enterprises which are unable to arrange for safe working conditions for the period of pregnancy. Earlier, the only safe option for them to protect themselves against risks attached to work was to resign when they became pregnant.

Article 12

1. States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in the field of health care in order to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women, access to health care services, including those related to family planning.
2. Notwithstanding the provisions of paragraph 1 above, States Parties shall ensure to women appropriate services in connexion with pregnancy, confinement and the post-natal period, granting free services where necessary, as well as adequate nutrition during pregnancy and lactation.

Public health policy

The level of Finnish healthcare is high by international standards. Traditionally, healthcare is primarily seen as a responsibility of public authorities. The provision of healthcare services is entrusted to municipalities with financing from the state. Most primary healthcare services are provided free of charge to the patient. The 1972 Primary Healthcare Act shifted the focus in the development of healthcare to primary healthcare. Current emphasis lies on the dental care of adults, geriatrics, psychiatric care and rehabilitation.

The long-term health policy in Finland relies on the World Health Organization (WHO) programme of **Health for All by the Year 2000.**[20] The WHO programme emphasizes the objective of social equity. Disparities in health between countries and population groups within countries should be diminished. Accordingly, the Finnish programme aims at equity, an aim which is formulated as follows:"Priority must be given to the needs of disadvantaged individuals and population groups as well as to equity between citizens in such a manner that economic factors will not become an obstacle to the appropriate use of health services." Also, attention is paid to regional equality. **Equality between the sexes has not been included in the professed goal towards equity** and the programme takes little notice of the differences between women and men in health, position and needs as clients of healthcare. The programme does not assess the implications of these differences in the various sectors of healthcare.

Another basic principle of the Health for All programme is wide and active participation by citizens. In the health strategies of the Finnish programme, a human being is seen not only as a passive consumer of healthcare services but also as a citizen actively working to achieve better health and improved services.[21] In its evaluation of the Finnish programme WHO said that **the principle of participation** was inadequately realized both in the preparation and implementation of the programme, both of which relied too much on specialists in medicine.[22] Participation by the consumers of healthcare services is particularly important from the point of view of women because they are the majority of those consumers. The Finnish programme was prepared one-sidedly by men. The group in charge of the preparatory work was composed of nine members, who were men, and three secretaries, who were also men.[23]

Mortality and morbidity rates

Finnish women have a higher average **life expectancy** than men: in 1989, 79 years as compared to 71 for men. The life expectancy of Finnish men is the lowest in the Nordic countries, and the difference between the life expectancies of women and men in Finland is larger than anywhere in the Nordic countries. The excess mortality of Finnish men is above all attributable to cardiovascular diseases. There is also a notable excess of mortality due to accidents, suicides, and lung cancer. In particular, suicides by young men have increased.

Another aspect of mortality rates of adults in Finland are the great differences between geographical regions and population groups. The average life expectancy is higher in high social groups than it is in lower social groups. The differences between social groups are smaller for women than men.

The higher mortality rate for men does not mean that women are in every respect healthier than men. According to a 1986 study on living conditions by the Statistics Finland, **the incidence of chronic illness which obstruct everyday life is higher for women than men.** This type of illness was reported by 28 per cent of men and 34 per cent of women. Similarly, women more often than men suffer from a severe disability. A disability affects the daily life of six per cent of men and eleven per cent of women. Women more requently than men feel that they are in poor health, and have psychosomatic or psychological symptoms.[24]

Morbidity among women and men varies according to social group and educational background. The differences are larger for men than women. The social and educational groups with the highest incidence of illness are among women and those with the lowest incidence can be found among men. Of working women and men, skilled women workers and women farmers have the highest incidence of disabling chronic illnesses. Those in the best health are men with the highest educational standard and who are upper-level white-collar employees. Another disparity between women and men is that skilled women workers have a higher rate of illness than unskilled women workers. The reverse is true for men. As this comparative study uses the concept of disabling chronic illness (functional concept of illness), the results may be affected by not only the incidence of different types of illness but differences in living conditions and social responsibilities. [25] The proportions of women and men by social group who have reported a disabling chronic illness are given in the Appendix.

Aids

In September 1991 some 410 persons were diagnosed as having HIV in Finland; 350 were men and 60 were women. 90 persons had AIDS; 83 men and seven women. Fifty-one men and four women had died of AIDS. The number of HIV positive is small by international standards, a fact at least partly explained by the dissemination of information carried out by public authorities.

Screenings for cancer

Health services specifically designed for women include mass screenings for the early detection of breast cancer and cervical cancer. The Cancer Society of Finland arranges screenings for cervical cancer in collaboration with local authorities. The organization of such screenings is not a mandatory obligation. In 1987 systematic screenings for breast cancer using mammography were launched throughout the country. According to a national plan for social welfare and healthcare approved by the Council of State, mammography to detect breast cancer should be provided by health centres for women aged 50 to 59. Additional screenings can be provided to women over 59. Municipalities are eligible for state subsidies to provide these screenings. Due to the deteriorating economic situation municipal authorities invited to breast cancer screenings roughly 75 per cent of the total of 225,000 women who, under the instructions, should have been invited.

Abuse of alcohol

Excessive consumption of alcohol is one of the major health risks for the working-age population. Traditionally, it has been a male problem in Finland. Some 80 per cent of the clients of services provided to abusers of alcohol, drugs and other intoxicants continue to be men. However, the consumption of alcohol by women and women's alcohol problems have grown, and the number of women treated for an alcohol problem has been rising steadily since the late 1960s and early 1970s. A study by the National Health Institute on healthy life habits in Finland shows that the proportion of women consumers of alcohol was 69 per cent in 1982 and 78 per cent in 1990. Alcohol consumption by women has stabilized around a fifth of the total consumption. Studies indicate that, similarly, women represent a fifth of the total population with an alcohol problem.

As alcohol abuse used to be a men's problem, also the welfare and healthcare facilities for alcohol abusers have been designed primarily for men. Treatments were based on the knowledge that it is men who suffer from this problem. Both out-patient services and institutional care still bear the imprint of being intended for men. This is why the threshold of seeking help is high for women. Until recently, treatment specially designed for women abusers has not been considered necessary. It is within the past few years that Finnish research into alcohol consumption has stopped ignoring gender as a social and cultural factor in the use of alcohol.

To make treatment possible on equal terms with men, services must be adjusted in such a way that the threshold for women to seek help will be lowered, healthcare personnel must be trained in receiving women abusers as patients as well as in identifying and meeting their special needs. Finally, treatments must be found to satisfy the needs of a woman with an alcohol problem.[26]

Family planning and abortions

All health centres provide **counselling for family planning,** mostly to women. The quality of family planning can be assessed by looking at the **number of**

abortions.

Abortions are regulated by an act of 1970, which provides for more lenient grounds and easier procedure to obtain abortion than the earlier act. After the entry into force of the act the number of abortions grew at first, but has been steadily declining since 1973.

The number of abortions in 1973 was 23,400; in 1983 the figure was down to 13,400; preliminary data for 1991 indicate a total of 12,100. This means that in 1991 fewer than ten abortions for a thousand women aged 15 to 49 were performed, and some 190 for a thousand women who gave birth. The number of abortions is smaller in Finland than in Sweden, Norway and Denmark. There are practically no illegal abortions. Furthermore, Finland is the only country in Europe where the number of abortions for women under nineteen is decreasing.

The majority of abortions, 84 per cent, has in recent years been performed on socio-medical grounds. Of the women who had an abortion in 1989, 28 per cent were married, 60 per cent were single, and nine per cent were divorced. Their social background varied; 54 per cent came from the middle social group, 43 per cent from the lower social group, and less than two per cent from the upper social group. The statistics for abortions from 1951 to 1991 are given in the Appendix.

Article 13

States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in other areas of economic and social life in order to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women, the same rights, in particular:

(a) The right to family benefits;
(b) The right to bank loans, mortgages and other forms of financial credit;
(c) The right to participate in recreational activities, sports and in all aspects of cultural life.

Women as entrepreneurs

A third of the Finnish entrepreneurs are women. Women's enterprises are usually small, labour-intensive and in the service sector. The majority of them have not more than five employees. Of the total business income, women get 25 per cent. Studies indicate that for women, running an enterprise is, rather than a business activity, a profession or a career which provides them an alternative to gainful employment in earning a living and where their contribution is decisive. Because they are small, women's enterprises do not accumulate enough property to change women's financial position essentially. Nevertheless, the enterprises owned by women are a vital part of the Finnish economy.

In spring 1987 the Ministry of Trade and Industry launched a Ladies Business School, a national **training programme** designed for women with a purpose of increasing women's management skills and potential to develop their own business activities. Nearly 400 women managers or entrepreneurs have undergone the training. A joint Nordic project to diminish gender-segregation of the labour market also included an experiment involving training for women in business. In 1988, WoMan, an **International Women's Management Institute** was established in Tampere by a group of women, with a view to creating a new management culture through encouraging women to fulfil their potential.

Women's financial position

Half the Finnish waged and salaried employees are women. Women get 41 per cent of all income, and own more than a quarter of all taxable property. Women's share of income from property ownership is 39 per cent. Lists of shareholders of the largest companies show that women represent 40 per cent of the major investment holders, which is a remarkably large proportion. This means that a considerable amount of the capital of the big companies has been invested by women. This shareholding is largely a result of inherited property. Only six per cent of the members of the governing bodies of large companies are women, much less than women's share of ownership of the companies. [27]

Women as farmers

Agriculture and forestry employ 207,000 people of whom 36 per cent are women. Agriculture is based on privately owned family farms, which are usually inherited. Farms are generally managed by both spouses, other family members and, in some cases, permanent or temporary hired workers. Most Finnish farms have both land and forest. In recent years more farmers have taken up employment outside the farm. Particularly women who often have a training for another occupation bring in a much needed additional income.

In most cases women become farmers through marriage. If the farm is bought only after marriage, it is usually co-owned. In cases where a person already owns a farm when marriage takes place, it generally stays in his/her name. Irrespective of ownership, women are nowadays equal with their husbands as agricultural entrepreneurs. Seven per cent of the farms are owned by women alone. In these cases the woman has started farming her own property or has inherited the farm. More than 40 per cent of the farms owned by women are less than ten hectares (25 acres) in size.

Within the past few decades forest and other land have, through inheritance, been passed to owners other than farmers. It is not known to what extent these owners include women.

SUP-PARAGRAPH C)

Sports and physical exercise

Women are very active in sports. There are however fewer women than men in the decision-making bodies of sports organizations, although their proportion is increasing.

Attempts to achieve equality in training are made by offering girls and boys the same opportunities to engage in various kinds of sports. A research project is underway to study the position of women in the different sectors of sports and physical exercise. Some sports organizations also have launched projects with a purpose of looking at the position of women. At the European level, Finland participates in projects concerning women within the framework of the Council of Europe and the European Sports Conference.

Culture

An example of the status of women in cultural life is the proportion of women among artists. Nearly half the performing artists (actors/actresses, dancers, singers) and 40 per cent of the visual artists, writers and critics are women. In these branches the share of women has remained more or less unchanged throughout the 1980s, while the proportion of women among musicians and composers has grown. In 1980 a total of nineteen per cent of musicians and composers were women; by 1985 the figure had risen to 30 per cent. But there are still very few women composers. In 1989 only one per cent of the members of the Union of Musicians' Associations and some nine per cent of the members of the Association of Composers of Popular Music were women.

TABLE 7. Women artists in 1970, 1980, and 1985.

Artists	% of women 1970	1980	1985
Musicians and composers	12	19	30
Photographers and cinematographers	31	28	25
Painters and sculptors	28	31	40
Writers and critics	40	43	42
Directors (film and theatre)	–	27	32
Performing artists (actors, actresesses, dancers, singers)	–	47	47
Designers (mainly industrial)	62	55	66

Source: Arts Council of Finland

Women are more active than men as consumers of cultural services. They go to the library, theatre, concerts of classical music, museums and art shows more frequently than men, and form the majority of students in voluntary adult education. Men go to sports competitions more often than women, and somewhat more often to the cinema and to concerts of popular music. This is evident from a 1986 study on living conditions by Statistics Finland and from a Nordic study on cultural activities carried out in 1991.

Women have gained a stronger position in **cultural administration** in recent years. Three men and three women have served as Minister of Culture within the past ten years, and the current minister is a woman. The director general of the Department for Culture at the Ministry of Education is a woman. Of the twenty presenting officials (who are responsible for submitting matters to the Government for decision), eleven are women. Seven out of the thirteen members of the Arts Council of Finland are women, and the Council is chaired by a woman. Consequently, women represent 54 per cent and men 46 of the decision-makers. The ratio was the reverse in the previous three-year term. 41 per cent of the members of the nine art committees are women. The chairpersons of the committees are members of the Arts Council. At the local level, 76 per cent of the employers in the cultural sector were women in 1988. The directors of several cultural and arts institutions are women. Examples of recent appointments of women are the directors of the National Theatre and the National Gallery.

Article 14

1. States Parties shall take into account the particular problems faced by rural women and the significant roles which they play in the economic survival of their families, including their work in the non-monetized sectors of the economy, and shall take all appropriate measures to ensure the application of the provisions of this Convention to women in rural areas.

2. States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in rural areas in order to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women, that they participate in and benefit from rural development and, in particular, shall ensure to such women the right:

(a) To participate in the elaboration and implementation of development planning at all levels;

(b) To have access to adequate health care facilities, including information, counselling and services in family planning;

(c) To benefit directly from social security programmes;

(d) To obtain all types of training and education, formal and non-formal, including relating to functional literacy, as well as the benefit of all community and extension services, inter alia, in order to increase their technical proficiency;

(e) To organize self-help groups and cooperatives in order to obtain equal access to economic opportunities through employment or self-employment;

(f) To participate in all community activities;

(g) To have access to agricultural credit and loans, marketing facilities, appropriate technology and equal treatment in land and agrarian reform as well as in land resettlement schemes;

(h) To enjoy adequate living conditions, particularly in relation to housing, sanitation, electricity and water supply, transport and communications.

Regional and rural policies fall within the competence of the Ministry of the Interior, which has launched a **project for the development of rural areas.** In the framework of the project, a working group was established in summer 1990 charged with making proposals to improve the position of women, with special emphasis on employment.

The working group submitted its findings in October 1991, making proposals concerning the promotion of women as entrepreneurs, education and training, and research together with related pilot projects and information. The working group was able to use the experiences gained from women's projects to promote employment and business activities for women in the other Nordic countries. The working group considered it necessary that in developing rural areas the needs and resources of women be taken into account to a larger extent than has been the case.

The programme prepared in 1991 by the project for the development of rural areas proposes that an advisory board be established whose responsibilities would also include the promotion of equality for rural women and the improvement of their position. Attention has also been drawn to the position of women employed in the agricultural sector.

The Farmers' Pension Institute has studied the effects of a change made in legislation in 1990 on **the earnings forming the basis of pension of women and men working in agriculture.** The study reveals that women and men who are employed in agriculture full-time perform an equal amount of work; therefore, the income generated on the farms is divided equally between them in nearly all cases. Furthermore, the earnings used to calculate the pension average 97 per cent of men's earnings for women working on a dairy farm, and 87 per cent for women working on a farm without cattle or a farm which grow crops or plants.

While the study supports the view that both women and men in agriculture carry out an equal amount of productive work and they should therefore be treated equal, for example, when it comes to benefits, women in agriculture have experienced problems, including difficulties with tax authorities. In practice, the problems are two-fold: they relate to the women's occupation and to the division of the earned income. Tax authorities have defined one of the spouses as the actual entrepreneur, and the other as the spouse of the taxpayer in question. Thus the authorities have not always relied on the information as reported by the taxpayers themselves but have assigned a far smaller portion of the agricultural income to the woman working on the farm. With a smaller taxable income a woman working on a farm also receives a smaller maternity allowance and sickness allowance because these are calculated on the basis of earnings.

The Farmers' Social Insurance Institution has reported these problems to the Equality Ombudsman, who has stated that gender-based definitions together with inaccurate and ambiguous descriptions may in practice place women working in agriculture in an unequal position with respect to tax as compared to men. The Equality Ombudsman also proposed action to eliminate the problems, which appear to have been solved, as no new reports have emerged.

Farms which sell products to cooperatives, private stores and industrial plants may face problems of a different kind, those relating to payments for the products. The buyers may make the payments in their entirety to the person who has signed the contract for the sale of products, normally the husband. In the worst of cases, the wife who has through her work helped to produce the sold products is left without pay. Fortunately this is not always the case, and contracts for the sale of timber, for example, are usually signed by both spouses, if the forest is co-owned by them.

Article 15

1. States Parties shall accord to women equality with men before the law.
2. States Parties shall accord to women, in civil matters, a legal capacity identical to that of men and the same opportunities to exercise that capacity. They shall in particular give women equal rights to conclude contracts and to administer property and treat them equally in all stages of procedure in courts and tribunals.
3. States Parties agree that all contracts and all other private instruments of any kind with a legal effect which is directed at restricting the legal capacity of women shall be deemed null and void.
4. States Parties shall accord to men and women the same rights with regard to the law relating to the movement of persons and the freedom to choose their residence and domicile.

Under Finnish legislation, women and men are equal before the law. Research into women and law which has began within the past few years however reveals that because of the different life situations of women and men the implications of legal regulation which is sexually neutral may in practice differ for women and men.

Article 16

1. States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in all matters relating to marriage and family relations and in particular shall ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women:
(a) The same right to enter into marriage;
(b) The same right freely to choose a spouse and to enter into marriage only with their free and full consent;
(c) The same rights and responsibilities during marriage and at its dissolution;
(d) The same rights and responsibilities as parents, irrespective of their marital status, in matters relating to their children. In all cases the interests of the children shall be paramount;
(e) The same rights to decide freely and responsibly on the number and spacing of their children and to have access to the information, education and means to enable them to exercise these rights;
(f) The same rights and responsibilities with regard to guardianship, wardship,

trusteeship and adoption of children, or similar institutions where these concepts exist in national legislation. In all cases the interest of the children shall be paramount;

(g) The same personal rights as husband and wife, including the right to choose a family name, a profession and an occupation;

(h) The same rights for both spouses in respect of the ownership, equisition, management, administration, enjoyment and disposition of property, whether free of charge or for a valuable consideration.

2. The betrothal and the marriage of a child shall have no legal effect and all necessary action, including legislation, shall be taken to specify a minimum age for marriage and to make the registration of marriages in an official registry compulsory.

SUB-PARAGRAPH C)

Family relations of an international nature

International family relations are regulated under an act of 1929 relating to certain family relations of an international nature. The act is based on the nationality principle. As regards property ownership, the law of the state applies whose citizen the husband was when the marriage was concluded. The legal position of a child, whether born in or out of marriage, is determined according to the law of the state whose citizen the father is. The law is dated and in conflict with the Convention. The need to introduce a reform is recognized by the Ministry of Justice, but as yet no reform work has been initiated.

New divorce law

A reform of the provisions relating to divorce in the Marriage Act was introduced in 1988. The National Research Institute of legal Policy reported in 1989 on the practical effects of the reform. Divorce may be granted after a six-month reconsideration period. Grounds for divorce need not be given. The procedure is in two stages. At first dissolution of the marriage is sought by both or one of the spouses. This is when the reconsideration period starts. After this period, for divorce to be granted, another application for divorce must be filed, either jointly or by one of the spouses. If the spouses have been separated for the past two years, they may be granted divorce without a reconsideration period.

The reform made the actual process less complicated so that a lawyer is not necessarily needed. Wardship of children and visiting rights as well as division of property may in practice pose problems and lead to further disagreements.

The above report reveals that the reform led to an increase in the number of applications for divorce. The majority of applications are made by the spouses together. It would appear that in these cases women are willing to accept smaller amounts of maintenance for the children than in the cases where divorce is sought by women alone. The same is true for division of property; if divorce is sought jointly by the spouses, women enter into agreements that are less favourable to them than in the cases where they were alone in seeking divorce. In this context the researcher who prepared the report asks whether the fact that the divorce process now takes place outside the court system results in the weaker party giving up something that she would otherwise consider hers.

SUB-PARAGRAPHS D) AND E)

Artificial procreation

As yet Finland does not have legislation on artificial procreation. Such legislation has been prepared by a working group set up by the National Board of Health in 1982 and by two working groups created by the Ministry of Justice in 1987 and 1989 respectively. The proposals made by the National Board of Health working group and by the first Ministry of Justice working group have been circulated for comments. In 1991, the Ministry of Justice prepared proposals for government Bills on artificial procreation and on paternity.

The **proposal by the Ministry of Justice** aims at regulating artificial procreation in a manner which provides an ethically and legally acceptable framework for it and safeguards the position of a child born following the use of an artificial method.

According to the proposal, the following would be accepted as artificial procreation methods: artificial insemination, in-vitro fertilization, embryo transfer, and gamete intra-fallopian transfer. However, the so-called surrogate motherhood would not be acceptable. The use of artificial procreation methods and the storage of gametes and embryos would be subject to permission. Permission for the use and storage could be given by the National Board of Social Welfare and Health to healthcare units and licensed doctors. In artificial procreation, gametes and embryos from the couple and those donated by an outsider could be used. In permitting the use of donated egg cells, the proposal takes a more liberal stand on donated gametes and embryos than is the case in the other Nordic countries. The justification given for this is that the method enables the treatment of both male and female infertility.

The proposal restricts the use of artificial procreation methods to the treatment of involuntary infertility and to situations where procreation from the gamete of the couple would entail a considerable risk of serious illness. The methods should not be used if it is evident that a balanced life for the expected child could not be ensured. Moreover, they should not be used to obtain preferred characteristics for the child. Another requirement is that they could only be used for heterosexual couples. The methods could be used for married couples as well as for a woman and a man whose relationship is similar to marriage. The use requires the common consent of both woman and her partner. The woman and her partner become the parents of the expected child.

The requirement of marriage or similar relationship is based on the interest of the expected child. The underlying idea is that the welfare of the child is generally best guaranteed when the child is being taken care of by both parents. The guaranteeing of a family background to the child is considered particularly important. The couple who has used an artificial procreation method becomes the child's parents, whereas no legal relationship will be created between the child and the donor. If it were permitted to use an artificial method for an unmarried woman without a formal relationship the child would be left without a father. According to the proposal, the mother can not be allowed to take decision on this essential question relating to the person of the child. The authors of the proposal consider that if permitted, this would reinstitute the legal discrimination of children based on birth and would be in violation of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child. The proposal refers to Articles 2, 3 and 7 of the Convention.

The proposal would give the child right to learn the identity of the donor when he/she reaches eighteen.

III SOME SPECIAL GROUPS

CEDAW has also requested Finland to report on minority women

The position Romany women

Finland has a Romany population of roughly 6,000 people. They live in all parts of the country, mainly in urban areas. The Romany population has its own culture and way of life which sets it apart from the majority population. As Finnish citizens Romanies have the same rights as those belonging to the majority of the population. Their actual social position however differs from that of the majority. An example is that the proportion of working-age Romany adults in gainful employment is lower as compared to the majority population. Lower educational standards combined with prejudice often make it difficult to find employment. Another example of the differences is that Romanies have housing problems more often than the average population.

When looking at the position of a Romany woman, a distinction needs to be made between her position and opportunities in Finnish society in general on one hand and her position as a member of the Romany population on the other.

The problem is that often it is not possible to determine whether discrimination faced by a Romany woman is due to her ethnic background or to her gender. The most typical instances of discrimination however give reason to conclude that a Romany woman receives different treatment mainly because of her origin. In practice, Romany women encounter more discrimination than Romany men because the dress they wear serves as a symbol for the culture. This is manifested in the harshness of attitude and suspicion, for example, when Romany women go to a shop or government office. The traditional dress is clearly a drawback when a woman seeks employment, and raises the threshold for a Romany woman being accepted for customer service. Women therefore suffer from indirect discrimination because of gender.

In a public hearing arranged as part of the preparation of this Report, Romany women stressed that the Romany dress worn by women is an essential feature of their culture and part of their identity as Romany women. A representative of the Ministry of Labour confirmed that a Romany woman remains entitled to an employment benefit if she declines to accept employment in which the Romany dress cannot be worn.

The position of women among Romany people is partly determined by the fact that one of the central values characterizing Romany culture is a strong sense of community and commitment to one another. Family relations are very strong. An illustration of this is that a Romany woman who is married is more often than not introduced as a daughter of her parents and not as a wife of her husband. According to Romany women, the Romany have a patriarchal concept of family, but a strong sense of community and recognition of interdependence means that sexual equality cannot be assessed using the same standards as for the majority of population. In the Romany culture, men have to step aside in some areas, just as women have to do in other areas. As seen by Romany women themselves, their position is not nearly as repressed as is easily believed by those representing the majority culture. It was pointed out at the public hearing also that because they raise the children, Romany women play a central role in handing down the culture to the next generation.

Discussion about the status of Romany women has started at women's get-togethers and camps arranged by Romany organizations and congregations and attracting a lot of participants. The Advisory Board for Romany Affairs working in connection with the Ministry for Social Affairs and Health has eight Romany members, including three women.

The position of Saami women

Saami people are an ethnic minority in Finland with their own language, culture, identity and traditional way of life. In Finland Saami is defined as a person who considers her/himself as one, provided that she/he or at least one of the parents or grandparents has learnt Saami as the first language. Saami people in Finland number a little fewer than 6,000. Nearly 4,000 Saami live in their home area in the northernmost part of Finland. Saami are in a majority in the northernmost municipality of Utsjoki, and in a minority elsewhere.

Traditional Saami livelihoods used to be reindeer herding, fishing and hunting. Nowadays a large number of Saami people earn a living outside the traditional fields. This also applies to women. Increasingly, Saami women are gainfully employed outside home. A problem they face is that work and study opportunities within the Saami community but outside the traditional life are few. One of the key questions is the provision of study and work opportunities for women within the Saami areas to prevent extensive migration and a change into a male-dominated community.

The Saami people have a representative body of their own, Saami Parliament. Of the twenty members, four are women. The Advisory Board on Saami Affairs, which is composed of Saami representatives and officials, has eleven members, including two women, one of whom is Saami. Bodies charged with Saami affairs have also discussed and given comments on questions relating to Saami women.

The Nordic Saami Council has a sub-committee for women, and it is possible to say that a Saami women's movement exists at the Nordic level. Since the International Women's Year 1975, four Nordic women's seminars have been arranged, and in 1989 a Nordic organization for Saami women was established. In 1988, the Nordic Saami Institute launched the first extensive study on Saami women, which was financed by Norway. Norway has, in many ways, been the most active party in the Nordic cooperation on women's issues; it has, for example, implemented special measures to advance the position of Saami women based on a 1986 plan for equality. Sweden and Finland have not yet taken any measures to this effect; Finland therefore has a lot to benefit from the Nordic cooperation. Finnish Saami women are interested in the cooperation but a lack of information and money have made it difficult.

Nordic Saami women's seminars have drawn attention not only to the Saami women's work and study opportunities but also to their possibilities to participate in the life of society and to issues relating to the rearing of children. Some other questions raised are language studies, Saamilanguage TV programmes for children, and day care facilities in the Saami language. An urgent need for a Saami day care centre in Finland was expressed at the public hearing held in preparation for this Report.

The position of women with a disability

The position of disabled women has not raised a great deal of discussion in Finland, and it has not been studied. Problems of disabled women are not so much related to legislation than to attitudes.

In the experience of disabled women, disability is a more important cause of discrimination than gender. However, some of the difficulties encountered by disabled women seem to be gender-related. For example, a lot of doubt still exists among medical professionals about disabled women as mothers, and it is not easy for these women to find support during pregnancy. Also, they may have difficulties in adopting a child.

A disability clearly becomes a limitation for a woman seeking employment even in cases where the disability would not affect work performance. As for pay, disabled women are the most disadvantaged group; as employees, they suffer from a "double handicap". Technical aids may more easily be provided to men.

In family relations, marriages between disabled men and women without a disability are socially more readily acceptable. In these marriages women adopt their "natural" role as providers of care. In contrast, disabled women rarely marry a non-disabled man, but stay unmarried or marry a man with a disability. Particularly a lot of women who have a good educational background live alone.

Sexual abuse of disabled women seems to more common than can be assumed from public discussion. Closed institutions where the inmates are helpless or have to rely on assistance are potential hideaways for sexual abusers.

More generally, the sexuality of disabled women is a matter surrounded by silence. As to active participation in the life of society, disabled women have had few social models for such participation.

Services and facilities to be provided to the disabled are regulated by an act of 1987. The act is aimed at promoting the possibilities of a disabled person to live and act as equal members of society and at eliminating drawbacks and impediments caused by disability. For the purposes of the act, a disabled person is defined as someone who as a result of a disability or sickness has chronic difficulties in pursuing every-day life habits.

It is a municipal responsibility to provide adequate services and facilities. The services and facilities include: reasonable transportation services, interpretation, service housing for a person who needs them in order to cope with ordinary life routines. The act is based on sound principles. For disabled women, it may be problematic that some of the services are provided by home helpers (employed by the local government) whose training and work experience mostly relates to families and the aged. They are not necessarily accustomed to attending to the needs of the disabled, for example, in cases where a disabled wife requires help with household work.

The working group for the preparation of the Report conducted a survey using questionnaires on the proportion of women in the governing bodies of organizations for the disabled. The questionnaire also asked whether the organizations had discussed the position of disabled women and their specific problems, and whether they had carried out or given support to projects aimed at examining or solving those problems. The questionnaire was sent to the Council for the Disabled working in connection with the Ministry for Social Affairs and Health and to eighteen major organizations. Fourteen organizations, in addition to the Council, replied.

At least half the members are women in all those organizations that replied. Most have a clear majority of women. Their staff is mostly women. In contrast, five organizations reported that half the members of their governing bodies were women, and in another nine women were less than half. Of the eighteen members of the National Council for the Disabled eight are women.

Generally speaking the organizations have not formally discussed the special problems of disabled women. Neither have they provided support to or carried out any projects. Some organizations however say that discussions take place in the context of their training programmes and other practical work.

The National Council for the Disabled had not discussed the specific position of disabled women until the working group for the preparation of this Report contacted it for information. To collect the information, the Council set up an informal discussion group and is planning to create a permanent women's group. Kynnys ('Threshold'), which brings together a number of different oranizations for the disabled, has had a women's group for two years. This group is a member of an organization of disabled women in Europe. In 1993 Kynnys and its women's group will hold a summer seminar open to disabled women in Europe.

From the perspective of disabled women, the Convention is problematic in the sense that it seems to encourage similarity, whereas the achievement of equal opportunities for disabled women requires the acceptance of dissimilarity.

The position of foreign women

In international comparison Finland has few foreigners. By the beginning of March 1992 foreign citizens in Finland numbered 38,000, or 0.7 per cent of the population.[28] Unlike the other Nordic countries, Finland was, until the 1970s, a country of emigration. Within the past two years, there has been a heavy increase in the number of foreigners, and this trend is expected to continue. In the foreseeable future, emigration may be expected in particular from the former Soviet Union and from the Baltic states. [29]

All foreigners, excluding Nordic citizens, need a residence permit for a stay exceeding three months. In order to be able to work, those who are not permanently resident in Finland need a work permit. Work permit is not required of Nordic citizens, former Finnish citizens, persons who are married to a Finnish citizen, and refugees. On request, a foreigner can be naturalized after five years of permanent residence in Finland. Naturalization may take place after three years, if a foreigner has been married to a Finnish citizen for two years during this period, and the marriage is still valid. Former Finnish citizens and other Nordic citizens can be naturalized within a shorter period.

The **legal position** of foreigners has been brought as close to that of Finnish citizens as possible. However, a person must be a Finnish citizen, for example, to qualify for certain high offices in state and local administration, to have right to vote and to stand in national elections. A foreigner who has been resident in Finland for four years is eligible to vote and to stand for local elections.

The **largest groups of foreigners** in Finland are the Swedes and immigrants from the former Soviet Union. Even the second-largest groups do not come from typical countries of emigration, but the United States, Germany and the United Kingdom. The main reasons for immigration are return to Finland after a period of emigration, and marriage to a Finn. Lately, foreigners, have increasingly moved to Finland to work, study and find political asylum here. Within the past ten years, the most rapidly growing group of foreigners, in ratio to the total number, is those born in Asia and Africa. The number of refugees is approximately 5,000.

Unlike many countries receiving migrant workers, Finland has an equal number of **both sexes.** Differences in this respect however emerge between various nationalities. Two thirds of foreign students are men, but there is great variation between the nationalities as to the numbers of each sex.

Foreigners in Finland have **families** nearly as often as the original population. There are however large differences between the nationalities in the proportion of unmarried individuals. Mixed marriages is rather the rule, and the majority of foreigners are married to a Finn. There is not much variation in this regard between foreign women and men. Mixed marriages are not as frequent among refugees, who have brought their families to Finland. The divorce rate is about the same for foreigners and Finns, and more or less as large a proportion in both groups have **children.** Single parent families among foreigners are less common than they are among Finns.

The majority of foreigners who are in the labour force are gainfully employed. But the employment rate for them is lower than for the original population, because a larger proportion of them perform unpaid domestic work. There is practically no difference between employment rates for foreign and Finnish men, whereas **foreign women are less often gainfully employed than Finnish women and are more frequently engaged in unpaid domestic work.**

Foreign men enjoy in many ways a better position on the labour market than foreign women. Just as the labour market is **gender-segregated** for the Finns, it is so for the foreigners. Men hold senior white-collar jobs more often than women, and a greater proportion of women have lower positions. Women more often work in the service sector. Both among Finns and foreigners, some professions are typical of women. Gender is a more important determinant of division of labour than is the fact whether the employee is a Finn or a foreigner.

Foreign women have a **lower level of earnings** than men. Pay differentials between the sexes are somewhat larger for foreigners than they are for Finns. In 1988, the earnings of foreign women were less than two thirds of those of foreign men.

In the 1980s, the rate of **unemployment** for foreigners in Finland was higher than for the original population. Foreign women seem to have fewer opportunities to work than foreign men. In 1988, unemployment among women was more than twice as common as it was for men. Western European and North American women appear to have the best work opportunities. Unemployment rates are particularly high for women who have immigrated from the former Soviet Union.

Of the foreigners in Finland, 5,000 are **refugees.** Their numbers have increased only recently. In the 1980s there were few dozen asylum seekers each year. In 1989, the number of asylum seekers was 179; in 1990 it reached 2,743; and in 1991 it was 2,137. Refugees usually come from more remote cultures than other foreigners, and they therefore experience greater difficulties in finding their way in Finnish society. In refugee communities women are easily left invisible. Refugee women are apparently in great need of ensuring the support of their own community, and it would be important to create refugee communities where women are able to support one another.

The Ministry for Social Affairs and Health has published a handbook for foreign women on family life, matters relating to employment, and the various services provided by Finnish society.

The arrival in Finland of Somali refugees since 1990 has focused attention on clitorodectomy, the mutilation of female genitals ("female circumcision"). There are currently a little more than 2,000 Somalis in Finland. The question is new both to the authorities and the public at large.

There is no law against clitorodectomy specifically. It has been suggested that present legislation is adequate, because clitorodectomy is prohibited by the provisions on assault in the Penal Code. The practice is also prohibited by the Convention on the Rights of the Child, which is binding on Finland. Furthermore, clitorodectomy is not in conformity with the Finnish Child Welfare Act.

The Finnish Medical Association has taken a position on clitorodectomy, following requests to Finnish doctors to perform it. The Association holds that Finnish doctors are not permitted to perform it, because doctors are prevented from performing operations that may harm the patient by principles of medical ethics.

Finland has helped to fund the activities of the Inter-African Committee on traditional practices affecting the health of women and girls (IAC). The Ministry for Social Affairs and Health and the National Board of Social Welfare and Health believe that Finnish medical personnel needs more information and training to be able to instruct and support women of different cultures to oppose this practice in their communities, as well as to be able to use the correct professional skills in helping women with pregnancy and delivery. The authorities have taken joint action as follows:

- medical personnel will be provided information and instructions on clitorodectomy
- clitorodectomy will be included in the training programmes for social welfare and medical personnel at all levels
- development projects in social welfare and health will pay special attention to ways of eliminating the practice of clitorodectomy
- Finland will cooperate with local IAC committees in its development cooperation projects
- contact will be established with organizations that have been actively involved in the question.

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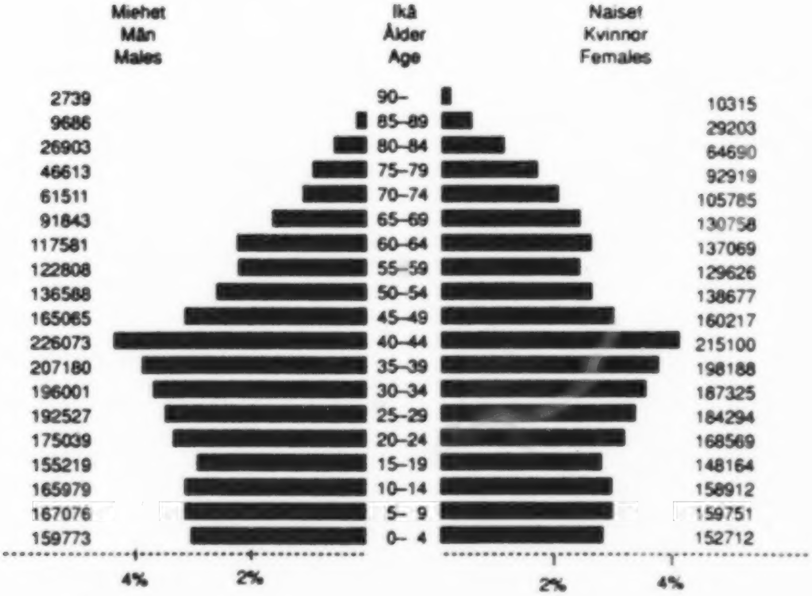
Population

1. Population by marital status 1800–1990 (as percentage)

Year	Unmarried		Married		Widowed and divorced	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
1800	61.1	58.4	36.3	34.3	2.6	7.3
1850	61.5	58.4	35.1	33.3	3.4	8.3
1900	63.0	58.9	34.0	33.2	3.0	7.9
1950	55.6	50.8	41.2	38.0	3.2	11.2
1980	48.9	41.6	45.5	42.7	5.6	15.7
1984	48.9	41.3	44.8	42.2	6.3	16.5
1987	49.1	41.4	44.1	41.5	6.8	17.0
1990	49.6	41.7	42.8	40.5	7.6	17.8

Source: Statistics Finland

2. Population by age and gender 1990



Source: Statistics Finland

3. Average life expectancy

Age	0	15	30	45	60
			Expected years		
1911–20					
– men	43.4	41.1	32.5	22.6	13.4
– women	49.1	47.3	37.0	26.0	15.1
1984					
– men	70.4	56.2	42.0	28.4	16.5
– women	78.9	64.4	49.7	35.3	21.6
1986					
– men	70.5	56.2	42.1	28.5	16.7
– women	78.7	64.2	49.6	35.2	21.6
1989					
– men	70.9	56.6	42.6	29.1	13.8
– women	78.9	64.5	49.8	35.5	17.7

Source: Statistics Finland

4. Morbidity rates for women and men

Age-standardized proportion of men and women who have reported a chronic illness obstructing every-day routines. Presented by social group. A 1986 study on living conditions by Statistics Finland.

	Miehet %	Naiset %
Senior white-collar employees	14	25
Junior white-collar employees	18	27
Skilled workers	26	39
Unskilled workers	27	34
Entrepreneurs	26	32
Farmers	33	38
Not gainfully empolyed	34	38

Source: Lahelma, Karisto, Manderbacka, Rahkonen: Sairastavuus ja sosiaaliluokka Suomessa, Ruotsissa ja Norjassa (Morbidity and social class in Finland, Sweden and Norway). Suomen Lääkärilehti 26/1991.

5. Family structure 1987

Families with children	644 000
Families with two parents (including common law couples)	546 000
Single parent families of which families with	98 000
–mother and children	86 000
– father and children	12 000

Number of children (%)

	%
1 child	45
2 children	40
3 children	12
4 children or more	3

Children under 18 years of age	1 124 367
Children under 7 years of age	443191

Source: Statistics Finland

6. Legal abortions 1951–1991

Year	Number of abortions	/1000 women giving birth	/1000 women aged 15–49
1951	3 007	32.2	2.9
1955	3 659	40.7	3.4
1960	6 188	75.3	5.8
1965	4 782	61.5	4.2
1969	8 175	121.5	7.0
1970	14 575	229.5	12.7
1971	20 622	338.7	17.6
1972	22 146	376.0	18.7
1973	23 362	413.2	19.6
1974	22 846	366.8	19.0
1975	21 547	324.2	17.9
1976	19 818	297.2	16.4
1977	17 772	272.2	14.7
1978	16 928	266.3	14.0
1979	15 849	251.5	13.0
1980	15 037	240.1	12.3
1981	14 120	224.0	11.5
1982	13 861	211.2	11.2
1983	13 360	201.1	10.7
1984	13 645	211.1	10.9
1985	13 833	222.0	11.0
1986	13 319	221.4	10.6
1987	12 995	218.5	10.3
1988	12 749	202.6	10.2
1989	12 658	201.1	10.1
1990	12 433	193.0	9.9
1991	12 100		

Source: National Board for Social Affairs and Health, February 1992. The data for 1990 and 1991 are preliminary.

Participation by women in society

7. Parliamentary elections 1907–1991

Year	Voter participation Women %	 Men %	Women % of candidates	Women % of elected MPs	Number of women
1907	–	–	–	10	19
1908	60	69	–	13	25
1917	66	73	–	9	18
1927	52	60	8	9	17
1936	59	67	8	8	16
1945	73	78	–	9	17
1954	77	83	14	15	30
1962	84	86	15	14	27
1966	84	86	16	17	33
1970	81	83	17	22	43
1972	81	82	21	22	43
1975	74	74	24	23	46
1979	75	76	26	26	52
1983	75	76	30	31	62
1987	76.6	76.6	36	32	63
1991	73.2	71.0	41	39	77

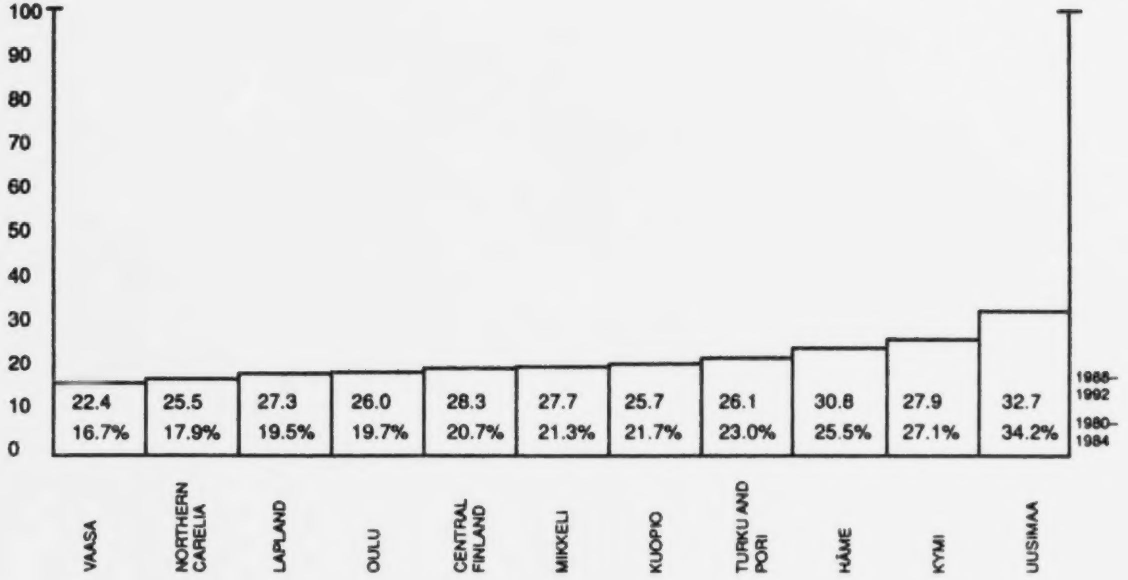
Source: Statistics Finland

8. Candidates for parliamentary elections and elected MPs, proportion of women by political party 1991

Party	Candidates			Elected MPs		
	Total	Women Number	%	Total	Women Number	%
Social Democratic	230	97	42.2	48	22	45.8
Coalition	230	100	43.5	40	20	50.0
Left-wing League	230	98	42.6	19	5	26.3
Centre Party	215	82	38.1	55	15	27.3
Christian Union	94	35	37.2	8	3	37.5
Rural Party	192	55	28.6	7	3	42.9
Swedish People's Party	71	28	39.4	11	3	27.3
Liberal People's Party	54	21	38.9	1	1	100
Constitutional Party of the Right	22	7	31.8	–	–	–
Party for Peace and Socialism – Communist Worker's Party	86	12	14.0	–	–	–
Green Association	229	109	47.6	10	5	50.0
Other parties	232	135	58.2	–	–	–
Åland Islands	12	4	33.3	1	–	–
Other	14	5	35.7	–	–	–
Socialist parties	546	207	37.9	67	27	40.3
Non-socialist parties	878	328	37.4	122	45	36.9
Other, total	487	253	52.0	11	5	45.5

Source: Statistics Finland

9. Municipal councils, proportion of women by province 1980–1984, and 1988–1992



Source: Council for Equality

10. Municipal councillors, proportion of women by party 1988

	Women %
Centre Party	22.4
Coalition Party	30.4
Rural Party	13.2
Christian Union	37.4
Swedish People's Party	25.5
Liberal People's Party	45.9
Social Democratic Party	33.4
Finnish People's Democratic League	25.4
Democratic Alternative	22.6
Greens	52.6
Other	22.1
Total	27.2

11. Chairpersons of municipal executive boards and municipal councils 1989

	Women %
Chair of municipal council	8.8
First vice-chair	23.0
Second vice-chair	27.0
Chair of municipal executive board	6.4
First vice-chair	14.1
Second vice-chair	21.7

12. Federations of municipalities, proportion of women 1989

	Women %
Companies	11
Regional planning authorities	11
Education	18
Healthcare	
– Council	31
– Executive Board	24
Social Welfare	
– Council	44
– Executive Board	39
– Preparatory committee	29

Scources: Council for Equality

13. Decision-making bodies of political parties, proportion of women following the latest party conference

Party	Memebership			Party conference			Council			Executive board		
	Total	Women	%	Total	Women	%	Total	Women	%	Total	Women	%
Social Dem. Party	61.000	31.100	38,4	331	85	25,7	72	21	29,2	13	4	30,8
Coalition Party	65.500	29.868	46.0	978	430	44,0	60	71	35,0	24	4	16,7
Centre Party	276.859	116.280	42,0	3 047	891	29,0	133	49	36,8	30	8	26,7
Rural Party	25.000	5.000	20,0	310	72	23,2	48	12	25,0	9	2	22,2
Christian Union	17.000	11.200	65,9	531	214	40,3	60	20	33,3	23	4	17,3
Swedish People's Party	50.955	25.352	51,5	372	122	33,0	122	52	43,0	29	11	38,5
Left-wing League	39.000	15.200	39,0	3 500*	1 858	41,3	100	36	36,0	19	9	47,0
Women's Alliance			100,0			100,0				10	10	100,0

Source: Council for Equality

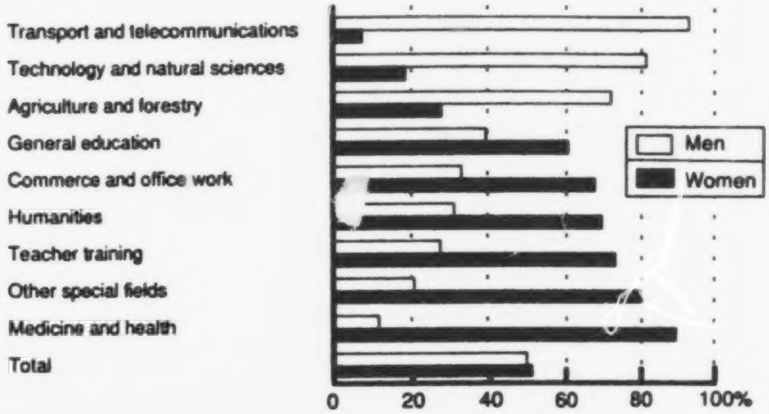
14. Decison-making bodies of central organizations of trade unions and employers, proportion of women

	1	1991		2	1988		3	1991		4	1989	
	Total	Women		Total	Women		Total	Women		Total	Women	
		Nr	%		Nr	%		Nr	%		Nr	%
Meeting of representatives	443	164	37.0	382	249	65.2	301	105	34.9	170	23	13.5
Council	128	51	39.8	99	67	67.7	–	–	–	44	6	13.7
Executive board	27	6	22.2	14	8	57.1	21	4	19.1	27	1	3.7

Source: Council for Equality

EDUCATION

15. Leaving certificates from senior secondary secondary schools and vocational and professional education institutions, and university degrees by field of education 1989



Fields of education (in the order of male-domination)	Men %	Women %
1. Transport and telecommunications	92,9	7,1
2. Technology and natural sciences	81,9	18,1
3. Agriculture and forestry	72,6	27,4
4. General education	39,2	60,8
5. Commerce and office work, law and social sciences	32,6	67,4
6. Humanities	30,8	69,2
7. Teacher training	27,3	72,7
8. Other special fields	20,4	79,6
9. Medicine and healthcare	11,1	88,9
10. All fields	49,5	50,5

Source: Statistics Finland

16. Matriculation examinations 1960–1989

Year	Total	% of women	% of men
1960	130,000	2.9	3.0
1970	246,000	5.6	5.1
1980	445,000	10.4	8.2
1985	610,000	14.2	13.3
1986	639,000	14.8	11.0
1989	719,000	16.6	12.1

17. Vocational and professional training 1960–1989

Year	Total	% of women	% of men
1960	390,000	8.1	9.6
1970	776,000	15.6	18.3
1980	1.319,000	26.1	29.1
1985	1.592,000	31.0	34.0
1989	1.763,000	34.2	36.7

Source: Statistics Finland

18a. Vocational and professional education by type of institution 1990

Type of institutions		Nr of institu-tions	Nr of studies		First-year students		Leaving certificates obtained		
			Total	Change from 1989, %	Women %	Total	Change from 1989, %	Total	Change from 1989, %
Vocational and professional education institutions									
Agriculture		60	5 673	2,5	43,2	3 181	-0,2	2 408	-9,9
Forestry		25	2 602	4,0	10,1	1 481	16,5	1 332	-45,9
Technical		32	20 296	8,4	9,5	7 655	9,9	4 897	9,1
Vocational		104	45 166	-0,6	30,8	18 124	-3,2	15 358	-3,9
Specialized vocational		27	1 819	0,3	25,7	1 543	6,1	362	-38,1
Special vocational		16	1 933	4,9	41,1	957	6,6	708	-8,9
Crafts and industrial arts		43	5 730	3,1	75,1	2 177	6,5	1 474	8,7
Fine arts		10	418	16,5	70,8	184	22,1	111	-7,7
Commercial		69	33 474	3,2	70,0	15 477	1,9	11 918	-2,1
Maritime		5	777	19,0	25,2	361	29,0	270	13,4
Healthcare		48	25 060	12,7	91,2	11 471	6,3	6 996	-11,8
Social services		27	8 506	29,1	94,5	4 118	20,7	2 657	47,9
Kindergarten teacher training		5	1 742	-0,7	97,5	620	5,1	580	9,4
Home and institutional economics		51	5 805	2,2	96,7	3 748	0,5	3 221	-7,7
Hotel and catering		14	3 111	1,3	86,1	1 658	-1,3	1 540	1,7
Fire, police and security		3	929	2,0	13,1	894	-4,4	909	18,1
Other		7	362	-4,7	48,9	302	18,9	329	17,1
Vocational and professional education in general education institutions									
Music		(11)	978	9,6	60,8	257	15,8	119	3,5
Physical education		(6)	325	14,8	51,1	107	-11,6	70	337,5
Folk high schools		(29)	1200	0,2	78,9	495	-8,5	386	-7,7
Other	(1)	112	3,7	66,1	53	3,9	21	23,5	
Total	1990	546	166 018	5,1	54,4	74 851	3,3	55 666	-3,4
	1989	546	157 787	2,0	53,6	72 394	2,2	57 572	-2,3
	1988	545	154 705	2,0	52,2	70 835	-2,5	58 942	-3,9
	1987	538	151 719	0,6	51,8	72 649	15,5	61 365	-1,8
	1986	538	150 784	0,7	50,8	62 917	-16,6	62 459	-4,9
	1985	524	149 763	0,3	49,9	75 434	-4,0	65 535	-1,5
	1984	516	149 317		49,4	78 554		66 522	

Source: Statistics Finland

18b. First-year students in vocational and professional education institutions by field of study 1984 ond 1990

	First-year students 1984 Total	Men %	Women %
Men's fields (91–100 per cent men)			
Heating and ventilation engineering	830	99.2	0.8
Automotive and transport engineering	3 590	97.6	2.4
Machine and metal engineering	7 185	97.0	3.0
Woodworking engineering	1 122	95.1	4.9
Electrical engineering	5 922	95.1	4.9
Forestry	1 476	91.1	8.9
Male-dominated fields (61–90 per cent men)			
Navigation	513	89.5	10.5
Construction engeneering	3 441	89.5	10.5
Finishing technology	299	85.3	14.7
Fishing industry	26	84.6	15.4
Textile engineering	35	71.4	28.6
Agriculture	3 140	69.8	30.2
Mixed fields (41–60 per cent men and women)			
Printing industry	355	55.8	44.2
Process and laboratory technology	1 112	54.7	45.3
Dairy technology	94	46.8	53.2
Land surveying	246	45.1	54.9
Female-dominated fields (61–90 per cent women)			
Foodstuff industry	705	36.6	63.4
Horticulture	809	30.8	69.2
Commerce and administration	14 717	29.6	70.4
Crafts and industrial arts	2 544	27.4	72.6
Catering and hotel industry	6 257	22.2	77.8
Women's fields (91–100 per cent women)			
Healthcare	9 405	7,3	92.7
Social services	1 238	5,3	94.7
Clothing industry	1 741	1,6	98.4
Home and institutional economics	8 417	0,2	99.8
Other vocational and professional education	3 335	36,0	64,0
Total	78 554	44,9	55,1

	First-year students 1990 Yhteensä	Men %	Women %
Men's fields (91–100 per cent men)			
Heating and ventilation engineering	873	99,4	0,6
Machine and metal engineering	4 596	95,5	4,5
Automotive and transport engineering	3 069	95,0	5,0
Navigation	240	95,0	5,0
Electrical engineering	5 940	93,3	6,7
Fishing industry	67	92,5	7,5
Forestry	1 440	92,5	7,5
Construction engeneering	3 720	91,5	8,5
Male-dominated fields (61–90 per cent men)			
Woodworking engineering	875	90,3	9,7
Finishing technology	285	72,3	27,7
Agriculture	2 129	65,1	34,9
Land surveying	248	61,7	38,3
Mixed fields (41–60 per cent men and women)			
Printing industry	464	56,7	43,3
Process and laboratory technology	1 205	55,6	44,4
Dairy technology	66	48,5	51,5
Female-dominated fields (61–90 per cent women)			
Textile engineering	57	40,4	59,6
Foodstuff industry	702	38,5	61,5
Catering and hotel industry	4 354	31,1	68,9
Commerce and administration	16 889	29,8	70,2
Horticulture	778	28,0	72,0
Crafts and industrial arts	2 313	27,7	72,3
Women's fields (91–100 per cent women)			
Healthcare	11 198	8,4	91,6
Social services	4 535	3,1	96,9
Clothing industry	1 004	1,8	98,2
Home and institutional economics	3 696	1,4	98,6
Other vocational and professional education	4 110	38,8	61,2
Total	74 851	43,5	56,5

Source: Statistics Finland

18c. First-year university students by gender and field of study, autumn terms 1983 and 1989

Field of study	First-year students, aut 1983 Total	Men %	Women %	Field of study	First-year students aut 1989 Total	Men %	Women %
Male-dominated fields (61–90 % men)				**Male-dominated fields (61–90 % men)**			
Tehcnical and scientific	1 879	84.5	15.5	Technical and scientific	2 968	81.7	18.3
Law	431	63,1	36.9				
				Mixed (41–60 % men and women)			
Mixed (41–60 %men and women)				Theology	233	55.4	44.6
Agriculture and forestry	314	58.6	41.4	Theatre	47	55.3	44.7
Natural sciences	1 863	56.4	43.6	Business and commerce	1 481	52.3	47.7
Business and commerce	1 475	56.1	43.9	Natural sciences	2 352	52.2	47.8
Theology	212	51.4	48.6	Agriculture and forestry	377	50.4	49.6
Music	155	45.2	54.8	Physical education	83	49.4	50.6
Theatre	52	42.3	57.7	Law	470	49.1	50.9
Medicine	418	41.4	58.6	Medicine	651	46.2	53.8
Physical education	89	40.4	59.6	Music	180	41.1	58.9
Female-dominated fields (61–90 % women				**Female-dominated fields (41–60 % men and women)**			
Social sciences	1 243	39.5	60.5	Industrial design	148	39.2	60.8
Industrial design	148	38.5	61.5	Social sciences	1 399	38.8	61.2
Dentistry	133	34.6	65.4	Dentistry	130	33.8	66.2
Psychology	129	30.2	69.8	Humaniteis	2 415	24.3	75.7
Pedagogy	1 731	27.1	72.9	Pudagogy	1 873	19.9	80.1
Veterinary science	39	25.6	74.4	Veterinary science	42	18.8	81.2
Humanities	2 020	24.2	75.8	Psychology	163	17.2	82.8
Pharmacy	237	15.6	84.4	Pharmacy	271	10.0	90.0
				Women's fields (91–100 % women)			
				Healthcare	269	4.1	95.9
Total	**12 628**	**47,6**	**52,4**	**Total**	**15 572**	**45,7**	**54,3**

Source: Statistics Finland

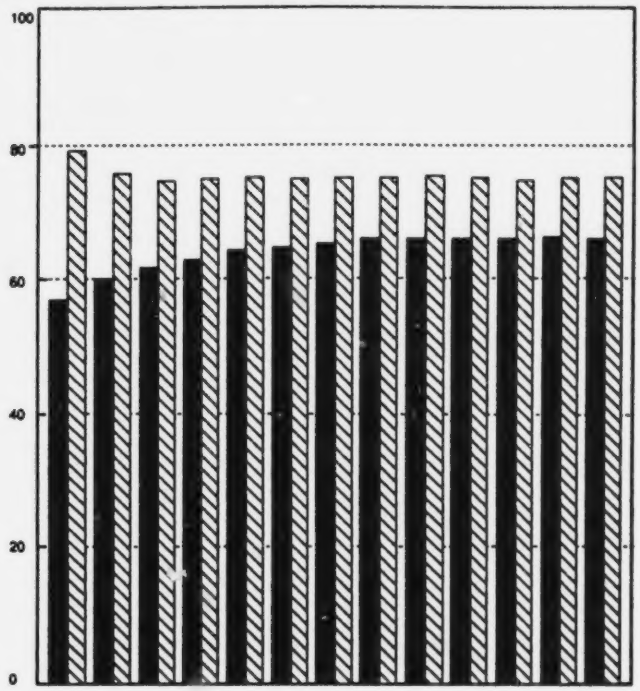
19. Women in adult education 1990

	Women %	Participants total
Vocational and professional institutions (estimated percentage) (1989)	43%	378 000[1]
Universities		
– further education	54 %	59 000
– open university	77 %	36 000
– re-training (for the unemployed)	41 %	2 100
Summer universities		
– professional further education	77 %	34 700
Folk high schools		
– basic programmes (1989)	75 %	6000[1]
Civic and workers' institutes (1989)	74 %	655 800[1]
Study circles (1989)	71 %	154 000[1]

Source: Statistics Finland

Working life

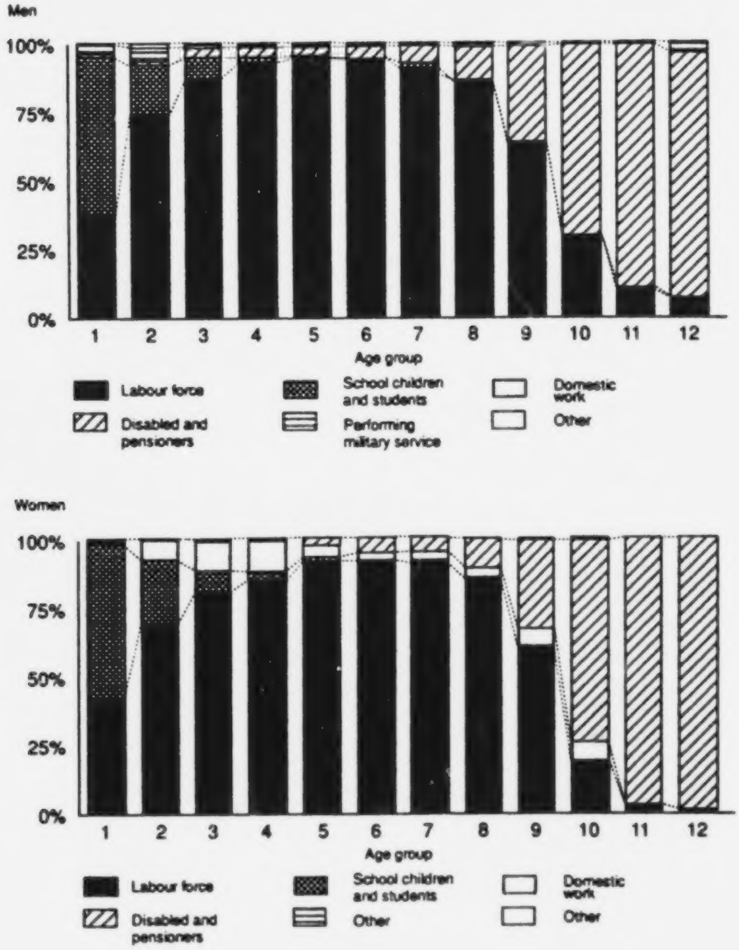
20. Labour force by gender 1970–1990 (aged 15–74)



Year	1970	1975	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
Women ■	56,8	59,8	61,3	62,2	63,4	63,8	64,0	64,8	64,5	64,1	64,1	64,3	63,9
Men ▨	79,1	75,4	74,1	74,2	74,2	73,9	73,9	73,8	73,9	73,4	72,9	73,2	73,0

Source: Study on labour force, Statistics Finland

21a. Activites of working-age population by age 1990 (chart)



Source: Study on labour force, Statistics Finland

21b. Activities of working age population by age 1990

Men (1000)

Age groups		Labour force	School children and students	Domestic work	Disabled and pensioners	Performing military service	Other
1.	15–19	55	90	0	1	7	1
2.	20–24	130	31	0	2	13	2
3.	25–29	178	11	0	3	0	1
4.	30–34	188	3	1	4	–	2
5.	35–39	197	2	0	8	–	1
6.	40–44	216	1	1	9	–	1
7.	45–49	140	1	1	11	–	1
8.	50–54	118	0	0	19	–	1
9.	55–59	76	0	1	45	–	1
10.	60–64	33	0	1	82	–	1
11.	65–69	8	0	–	82	–	–
12.	70–74	4	–	–	57	–	–
	15–74	1343	138	4	324	20	10

Women (1000)

Age groups		Labour force	School children and students	Domestic work	Disabled and pensioners	Performing military service	Other
1.	15–19	56	88	1	1	–	1
2.	20–24	117	41	10	1	–	2
3.	25–29	149	13	20	1	–	1
4.	30–34	157	6	22	2	–	0
5.	35–39	176	5	13	5	–	0
6.	40–44	195	3	11	8	–	0
7.	45–49	134	1	6	8	–	0
8.	50–54	117	1	6	16	–	0
9.	55–59	79	0	8	43	–	1
10.	60–64	27	0	10	100	–	1
11.	65–69	5	0	–	126	–	0
12.	70–74	2	0	–	102	–	–
	15–74	1213	158	107	413	–	7

Source: Study on labour force, Statistics Finland

22. Employed population by position and gender 1976–1990

	Employed (1000)					
	Wage-earners			Entrepreneurs and their family		
Year	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
1976	955	864	1819	254	183	437
1980	1010	920	1930	221	158	379
1981	1017	945	1962	220	155	375
1982	1020	970	1990	233	154	377
1983	1018	986	2004	231	155	386
1984	1037	998	2035	224	153	378
1985	1047	1029	2077	217	143	360
1986	1040	1031	2071	223	136	359
1987	1027	1024	2051	234	138	372
1988	1029	1034	2062	236	133	368
1989	1052	1052	2104	240	127	367
1990	1053	1055	2108	236	124	359

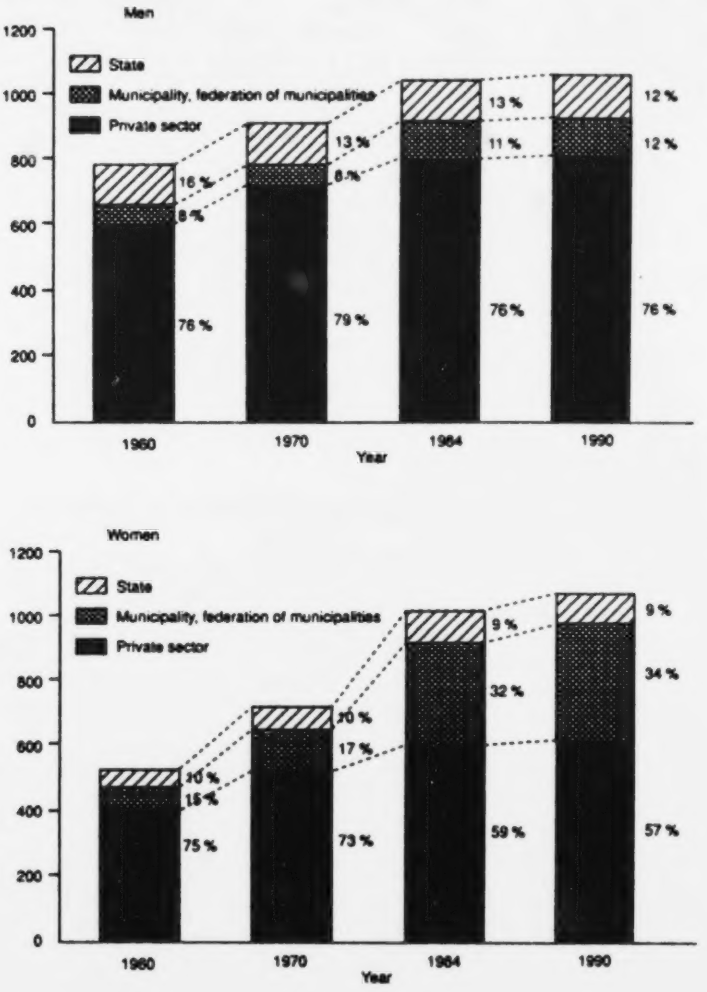
Source: Statistics Finland

23. Women's labour force participation by number of children 1980, 1987 and 1989

	1980		1987		1989	
	Labour force (1000)	Share of labour force	Labour force (1000)	Share of labour force	Labour force (1000)	Share of labour force
Children under 18 years	578	81.6	562	85.2	572	85.4
– 1 child	275	83.6	278	87.5	266	86.6
– 2 children	231	82.5	211	85.7	228	87.4
– 3 children	71	72.0	74	76.5	77	75.5
Children under 7 years	253	75.9	251	79.0	256	78.3

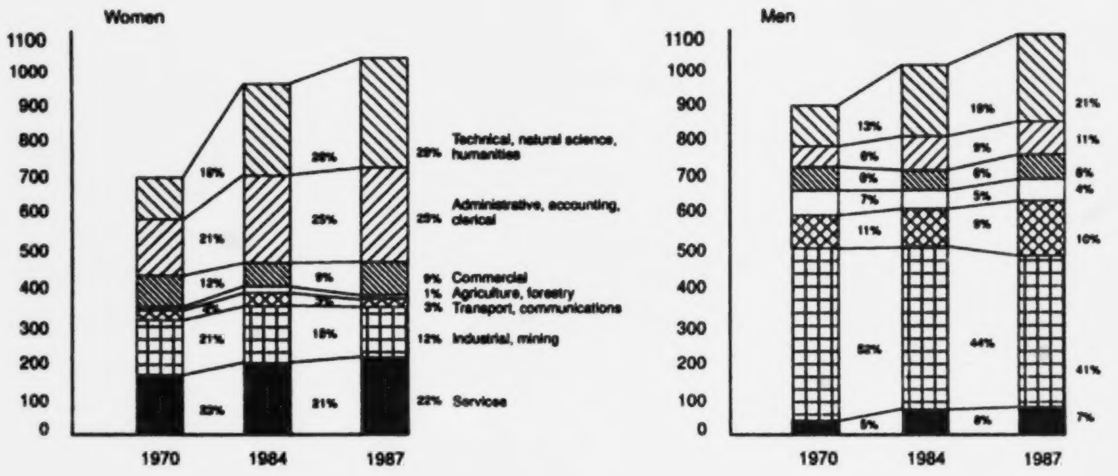
Source: Statistics Finland

24. Male and female employees by employer in 1960, 1970, 1984 and 1990



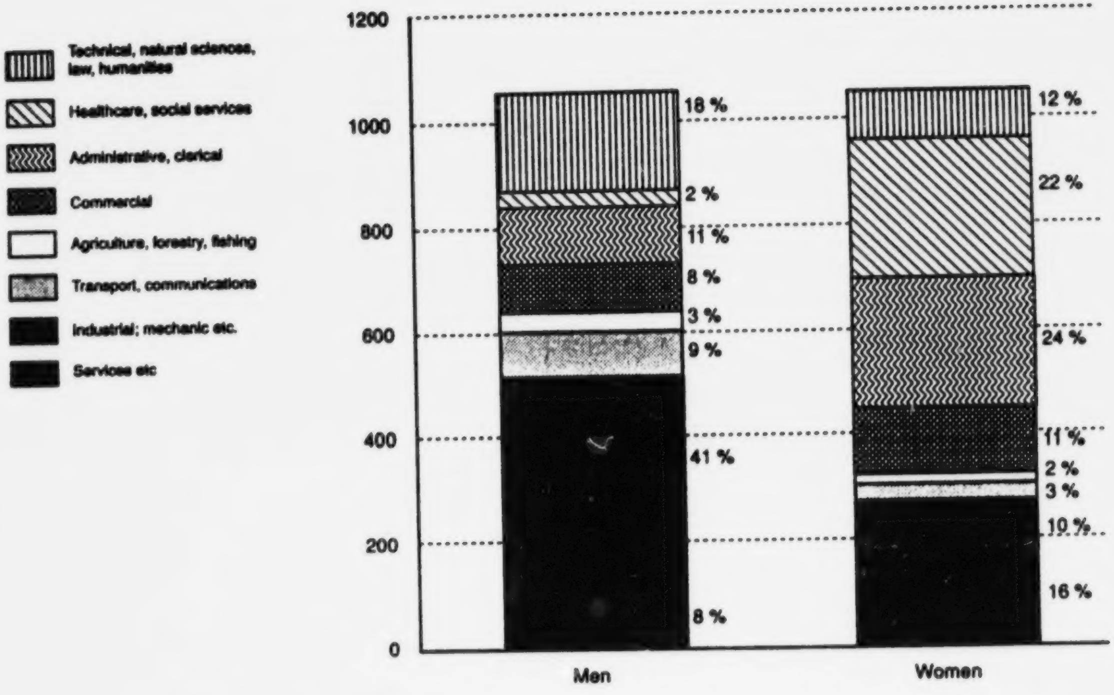
Source: Studies on labour force 1984, 1990; censuses 1960, 1970

25a. Occupations of female and male employees 1970, 1984 and 1987



Source: Statistics Finland

25b. Occupations of female and male employees 1990



Source: Study on labour force, Statistics Finland

25c. Occupations of female and male employees 1988 and 1990

	Women				Men			
	1990 Nr 1000	%	1988 Nr 1000	%	1990 Nr 1000	%	1988 Nr 1000	%
0 Technical, natural sciences legal, humanities, arts	128	12	120	12	187	18	180	18
1 Healthcare, social services	228	22	223	21	23	2	22	2
2 Administrative, clerical	253	24	248	24	113	11	106	10
3 Commercial	119	11	112	11	84	8	80	8
4 Agriculture, forestry, fishing	17	2	16	1	37	3	42	4
5 Transport, communications	31	3	29	3	95	9	100	10
6/7/8 Industrial; machine operator etc.	104	10	113	11	432	41	421	41
9 Services etc.	173	16	172	17	80	8	76	7
		100		100		100		100

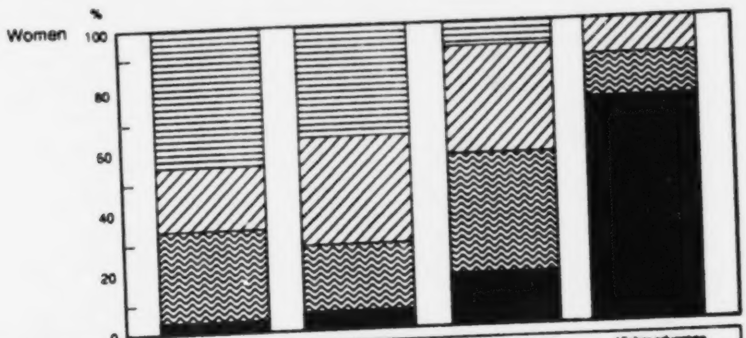
Source: Statistics Finland
N.B. Due to a change in classification, the figures for 1988–1990 are not comparable to those of the previous years.

26. The 20 most common occupations(for those employed) 1990

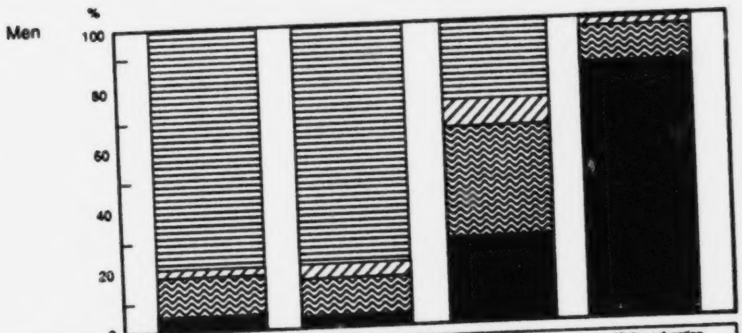
	Field	Total	Men	Women
1.	Healthcare, nursing	159	21	138
2.	Steel and metal works, machine shops, metal engineering in construction	156	148	8
3.	Engineering, chemistry, physics, biology	154	125	29
4.	Agriculture, forestry	146	91	55
5.	Secretarial, office work	143	12	131
6.	Sales in retail trade	128	38	90
7.	Executive and managerial in public administration, business and organizations	111	85	26
8.	Cosntruction, earth and water construction	107	104	2
9.	Teaching	105	39	66
10.	Office work in banking, assurance, tourism etc.	83	23	60
11.	Road communications	81	77	4
12.	Religion, law, journalism, arts, librarianship	73	36	37
13.	Sale of services and securities, real estate, sales representation	72	11	61
14.	Palvelusten ja arvopap. myynti ja välitys, kiinteist. myynti ja välitys, osto- ja kauppaedustustyö	71	45	26
15.	Cleaning	71	5	65
16.	Electrical; radio, tv, film and video technology	58	48	9
17.	Child daycare	53	0	53
18.	Social services and psychology; organization of free time activities	51	6	45
19.	Packaging, warehousing, stevedoring	48	31	17
20.	Post and telecommunications; mail delivery and sorting	43	16	27

Source: Studies on labour force, Statistics Finland

27. Female and male employees by level of education and socio-economic status 1990



Level of education		Basic	Lower level, upper secondary	Upper level, education	Higher education
Senior official, managerial staff	■	3,1	3,7	14,0	70.5
Junior employees, no independence	▨	30,1	22,4	39.7	13.7
Junior, independence	▨	21,3	35,5	35.5	14,9
Employees	☰	45,5	38,4	10,8	0.9
		100	100	100	100



Level of education		Basic	Lower level, upper secondary	Upper level, education	Higher education
Senior official, managerial staff	■	5,2	3,7	28,6	86.5
Junior employees, no independence	▨	13,6	12,5	37,8	9.5
Junior, independence	▨	3,1	5,4	9,3	2,6
Employees	☰	78,1	78,4	24,3	1,4
		100	100	100	100

Source: Statistics Finland

Unemployment

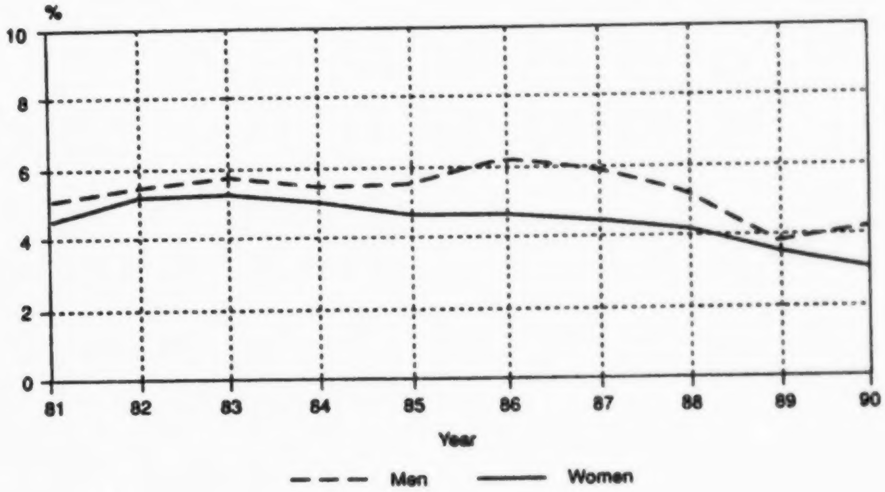
28. Unemployment rates 1980–1991

Year	Total	Men	Women	Women	Unemployment rates		
				%	Total	Men	Women
1980	114 000	61 000	53 000	46.5	4.7	4.7	4.7
1981	121 000	67 000	54 000	44.6	4.9	5.1	4.6
1982	135 000	73 000	62 000	45.9	5.4	5.5	5.2
1983	138 000	76 000	62 000	44.9	5.5	5.7	5.2
1984	133 000	72 000	61 000	45.9	5.2	5.4	5.0
1985	129 000	73 000	56 000	43.4	5.0	5.5	4.6
1986	138 000	82 000	56 000	40.6	5.4	6.1	4.6
1987	130 000	78 000	53 000	40.8	5.1	5.8	4.3
1988	116 000	67 000	48 000	41.4	4.5	5.1	4.0
1989	89 000	48 000	41 000	46.1	3.5	3.6	3.3
1990	88 000	54 000	34 000	38.6	3.4	4.0	2.8
1991	193 000	124 000	69 000	35.8	7.6	9.3	5.7
1st gr 1988	137 000	87 000	50 000	36.5	5.5	6.6	4.3
4th gr 1988	103 000	58 000	44 000	42.7	4.1	4.5	3.7
1st gr 1989	107 000	63 000	44 000	41.1	4.3	4.8	3.7
4th gr 1989	78 000	43 000	35 000	44.9	3.1	3.3	2.9
1st gr 1990	85 000	55 000	31 000	36.5	3.4	4.1	2.6
4th gr 1990	100 000	64 000	36 000	36.0	4.0	4.9	3.0
1st gr 1991	146 000	98 000	48 000	32.9	5.9	7.5	4.1
4th gr 1991	247 000	159 000	88 000	35.6	9.9	12.1	7.5

Source: Study on labour force, Statistics Finland

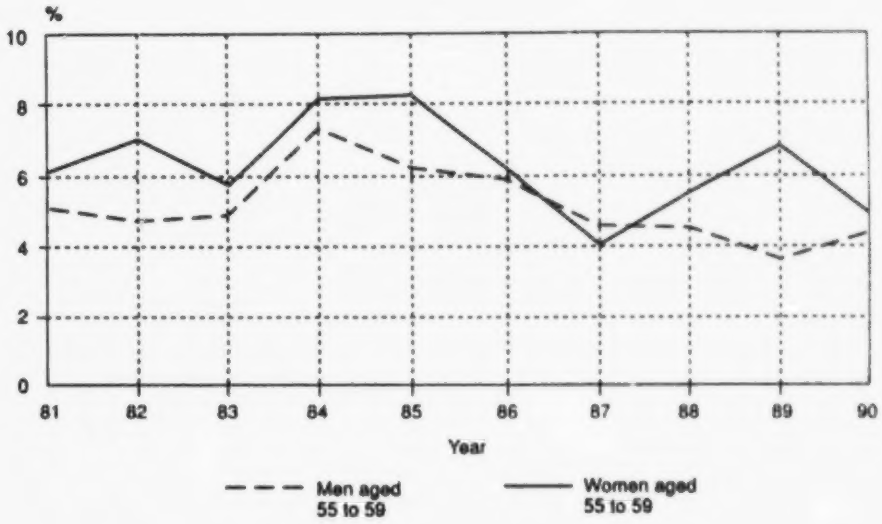
N.B. Of the persons on unemployment pension, the figures cover only those who are looking for work and are available for employment.

29. Unemployment rates by gender 1981–1990



Source: Study on labour force, Statistics Finland

30. Unemployment rates by gender in age group 55 to 59 1981–1990



Source: Study on labour force, Statistics Finland

31. Persons on unemployment pension, employment under special schemes and undergoing retraining, april 1988, 1989, 1990 and 1991

	Year	Total	Men	Women	Women %
Unemployment pension	1988	68 204	30 462	37 742	55.3%
	1989	66 709	30 122	36 597	54.9%
	1990	60 690	27 452	33 238	54.8%
	1991	54 125	24 474	29 651	54.8%
Employed under special schemes	1988	30 495	12 611	17 884	58.6%
	1989	28 169	12 349	15 820	56.2%
	1990	25 369	115 390	13 730	54.3%
	1991	29 834	15 760	14 774	47.2%
Retraining	1988	18 313	10 356	7 955	43.4%
	1989	17 145	8 985	8 160	47.6%
	1990	18 336	9 070	9 266	50.5%
	1991	18 431	10 322	8 099	44.0%

Source: Ministry of Labour statistics. Työmarkkinat (publication on vacancies) April 1988, 1989, 1990 and 1991. Unpublished data

32. Disguised unemployment and underemployment (age group 15 to 64) 1983 and 1989

	Year	total	Men	Women	Women %
Disguised unemployment	1983	50 000	16 000	34 000	68%
	1989	50 000	21 000	28 000	56%
Underemployment*	1983	59 000	21 000	38 000	64.4%
	1989	42 000	13 000	29 000	69.0%

**)in part-time work against own preference*

Source: Annual interviews with labour force 1983 and 1989

33. Unemployment benefits 1988–1991

Year	Basic allowance Total of beneficiaries	Women %	Income-related allowance Total	Women %
1988	178 200	42.6	188 300	52.7
1989	138 300	43.4	167 500	55.1
1990	126 000	40.8	171 300	51.1
1/1991			82 818	43.4
2/1991			93 135	41.8
3/1991			103 620	39.3
4/1991			112 657	39.1
5/1991			119 216	39.5
6/1991			112 970	40.7

Source: Unemployment benefits. Publications by the Ministry for Social Affairs and Health 7/1989, 1/1990 and 2/1991.

34. Average unemployment benefits, FIM, 1988–1990

Year	Basic allowance men	women	%*)	Difference**)	Income-related allowance men	women	%*)	Difference**)
1988	85:80	79:60	92.8	7:00	174:50	135:70	77.8	38:80
1989	92:90	87:10	93.7	5:80	188:40	148:70	78.9	39:70
1990	104:10	97:40	93.6	6:70	210:30	163:40	77.8	46:90

**) women's basic allowance as percentage of men's*
***) difference in marks in the terms of 1990*
Source: Unemployment benefits. Publications by the Ministry for Social Affairs and Health 7/1989, 1/1990 and 2/1991.

35. Part-time employees 1976–1990 (1–29 hours a week)

Aged 15 to 74
(1000 persons)

Year	Men	Women
1976	40	110
1981	47	126
1982	51	131
1983	56	142
1984	57	144
1985	58	142
1986	62	134
1987	61	133
1988	56	121
1989	60	122
1990	57	120

Source: Study on labour force, Statistics Finland

36. Domestic work 1989–1991

	Total	Men	Women
4th gr 1989	106 200	29 000	103 300
1st gr 1990	108 700	36 000	105 100
1st gr 1991	110 100	42 000	105 800
2th gr 1991	117 100	46 000	112 600
change 4/1989–2/1991	+ 10 900	+ 1 700	+ 9 300

Source: Statistics Finland/Labour statistics. Työmarkkinat (publication on vacancies) 1990:5, 1990:12, 1991:13.

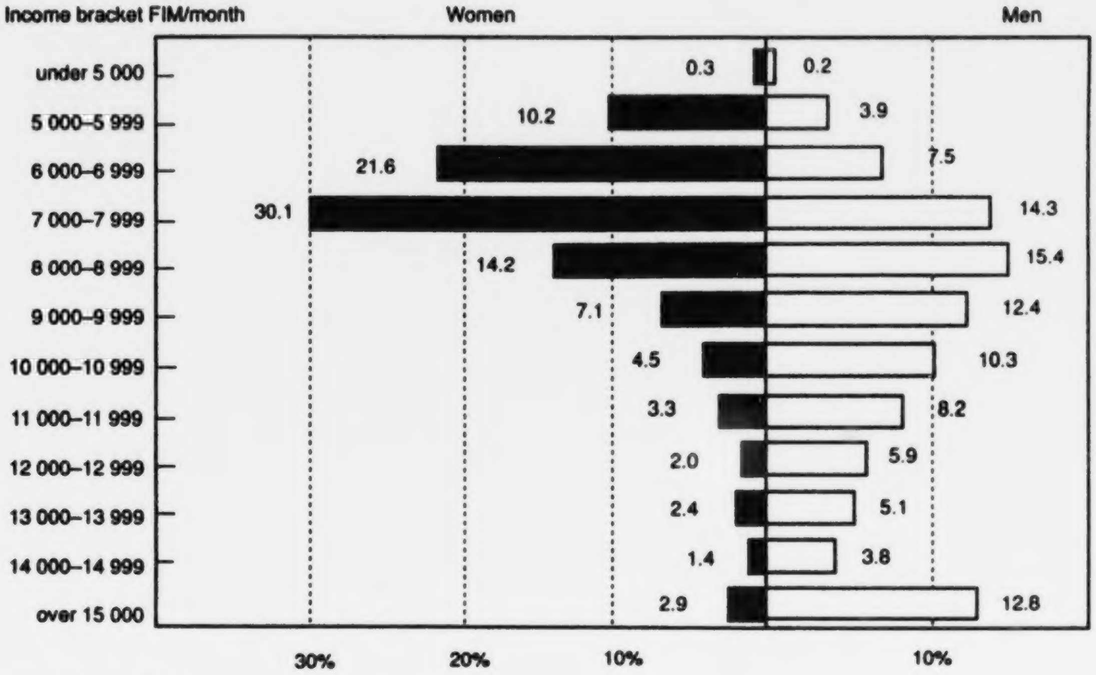
Salaries and wages

37. Women's and men's hourly wages by industrial sector, and women's wages as percentage of men's wages 1975 and 1990

Sector	FIM/hour				Women's wages as percentage of men's	
	1975		1990			
	women	men	women	men	1975	1990
Mining	–	13.71	42.06	61.56	–	68
Lime and cement industry	9.19	12.62	37.91	53.89	73	70
Other construction	9.56	12.68	42.12	50.08	75	84
Glass and glass product	9.34	12.90	39.41	49.49	72	80
Porcelain	9.85	12.64	36.49	44.09	78	83
Metal	9.97	13.27	41.19	51.72	75	80
Leather	8.80	11.28	33.57	40.87	78	82
Chemical basic	10.23	13.46	40.89	53.67	76	76
Textile	8.67	11.70	33.74	44.33	74	76
	8.44	10.14	32.49	36.94	83	88
Paper	10.88	13.48	46.31	56.19	81	82
Printing	10.86	13.53	45.92	54.92	80	84
Timber	8.75	11.01	39.78	44.62	79	89
Boatbuilding	–	14.60	41.01	48.84	–	84
Furniture	9.34	11.24	36.57	41.07	83	89
Other foodstuff	9.15	12.10	39.94	49.00	76	82
Brewing and soft drink	9.42	12.24	39.92	47.74	77	84
Tobacco	9.67	12.39	41.92	50.23	78	83
Power plants	8.73	11.98	36.55	49.48	73	74
Total	9.34	12.88	39.50	51.07	73	77

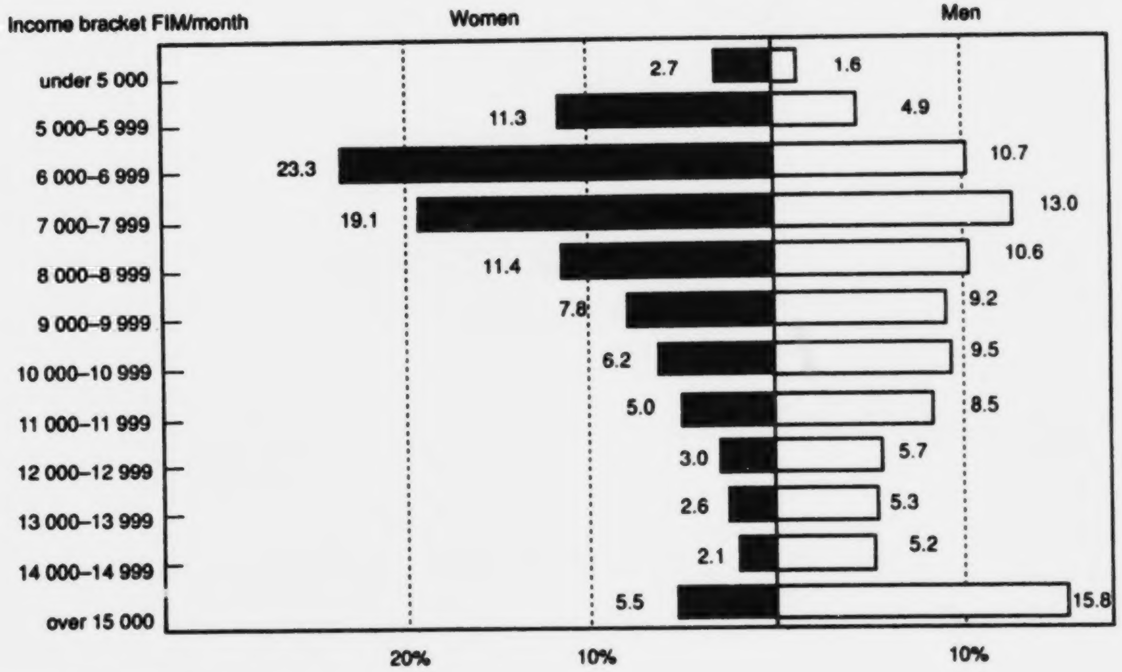
Source: Wage statistics, Statistics Finland

38. Salaried male and female state employees by salary levels September 1990



Source: Statistics Finland

39. Salaried male and female municipal employees by salary levels September 1990



Source: Statistics Finland

40. Earnings by occupation group in the public sector 1990. Average earnings for regular working hours by gender, and women's earnings as percentage of men's earnings.

Occupation group	Municipal, salaried			State salaried		
	Women	Men	%	Women	Men	%
	FIM/month			FIM/month		
Architects	13 986	14 970	93	13 823	14 707	94
Planning and inspection engineers	11 641	12 358	94	12 519	14 065	89
University lectures, directors	–	–	–	20 569	21 625	95
Senior teachers in vocational and professional institutions	10 292	10 304	100	10 964	11 766	93
Comprehensive school teachers	9 436	10 226	92	–	–	–
Secondary and senior secondary school teachers	13 287	13 685	97	14 472	14 489	100
Librarians	8 332	8 272	101	10 151	10 390	98
Musicians	8 726	9 916	88	–	11 837	–
Ward physicians, specialists, physicians in health centres	15 486	16 523	94	18 409	18 553	99
Dentists in health centres, specialists in dentistry	14 439	15 040	96	13 226	15 096	88
Nurses	8 691	8 556	102	8 371	8 947	94
Children's nurses (social services)	6 515	7 412	88	7 249	7 649	95
Senior officials in administration	17 583	21 688	81	15 839	19 912	80
Office workers	6 463	5 786	112	6 498	6 397	102
Mailmen, mail sorters	–	–	–	6 695	7 321	91
Firemen	7 743	8 584	90	–	9861	–
Police officers (excluding superintendents)	–	–	–	9 022	10 702	84
Cooks, cold buffet managers	6 722	6 657	101	7 115	7 770	92
Cleaning supervisors	7 237	7 985	91	6 856	7 446	92
Customs officials	–	–	–	7 376	9 062	81
Total	7 799	10 173	77	8 163	10 242	80
Total number	234 642	70 0873		70 934	98 510	
Number of women as percentage of employees in the sector	77%				42%	

Source: Statistics Finland

41. Women and men in state employment by administrative sector September 1990 (salaried employees)

Total earnings	Percentage of men and women																			
	21		22		23		24		25		26		27		28		29		30	
FIM/month	men	women	men	women	men	women	men	women	men	women	men	women	men	women	men	women	men	women	men	women
-7000	11,8	88,2	11,8	88,2	43,3	56,7	19,1	80,9	27,7	72,3	22,1	77,9	42,6	57,4			27,4	72,6	30,6	69,4
7001-7500	28,6	71,4	26,7	73,3	22,2	77,8	13,3	86,7	27,3	72,7	30,7	69,3	56,9	43,1	17,7	82,3	33,0	67,0	36,3	63,7
7501-8500	50,0	50,0	12,0	88,0	34,8	65,2	22,6	77,4	57,6	42,4	69,4	30,6	71,2	28,8	30,8	69,2	42,0	58,0	63,8	36,2
8501-10000	14,3	85,7	40,5	59,5	26,7	73,3	33,1	66,9	69,2	30,8	88,0	12,0	83,3	16,7	55,8	44,2	44,5	55,5	77,9	22,1
10001-12000	33,3	66,7	57,6	42,4	36,8	63,2	38,6	61,4	76,5	23,5	93,0	7,0	91,8	8,2	63,3	36,7	49,2	50,8	77,6	22,4
12001-15000	14,3	85,7	55,8	44,2	68,6	31,4	68,5	31,5	64,1	35,9	92,6	7,4	98,1	1,9	64,2	35,8	54,0	46,0	75,8	24,2
15001-18000	60,0	40,0	63,0	37,0	66,7	33,3	88,0	12,0	67,7	32,3	93,7	6,3	99,8	0,2	69,9	30,1	70,1	29,9	88,4	11,6
18001-21000	66,7	33,3	46,7	53,3	77,8	22,2	92,2	7,8	81,9	18,1	96,9	3,1	99,3	0,7			84,3	15,7	91,2	8,8
21001-25000	50,0	50,0	73,7	26,3	100,0	0,0	93,9	6,1	87,0	13,0	97,5	2,5	100,0	0,0			93,6	6,4	92,3	7,7
25001-	100,0	0,0	82,4	17,6	91,7	8,3	95,2	4,8	92,0	8,0	95,6	4,4	98,9	1,1	87,9	12,1	93,7	6,3	97,2	2,8
Total	31,8	68,2	38,8	61,2	51,1	48,9	39,5	60,5	53,7	46,3	70,8	29,2	68,9	31,1	31,4	68,6	43,6	56,4	53,1	46,9

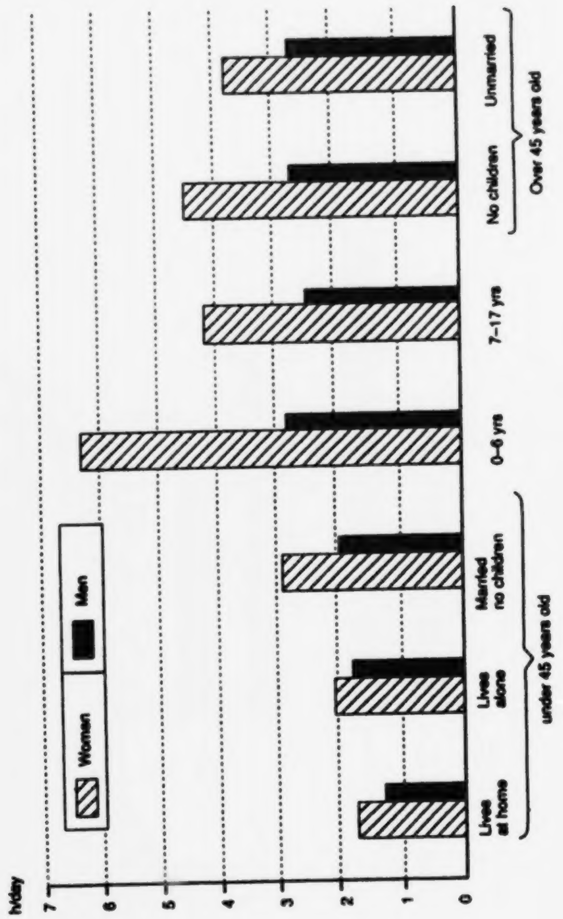
Total earnings	Percentage of men and women											
	31		32		33		34		35		Total	
FIM/month	men	women	men	women	men	women	men	women	men	women	men	women
-7000	45,0	55,0	35,6	64,4	16,2	83,8	49,0	51,0	32,2	67,8	36,0	64,0
7001-7500	58,3	41,7	32,1	67,9	20,2	79,8	35,4	64,6	35,2	64,8	44,4	55,6
7501-8500	70,2	29,8	40,8	59,2	35,4	64,6	49,0	51,0	65,8	34,2	60,0	40,0
8501-10000	83,0	17,0	56,4	43,6	39,4	60,6	63,1	36,9	69,5	30,5	71,8	28,2
10001-12000	91,2	8,8	69,1	30,9	35,9	64,1	64,2	35,8	69,4	30,6	78,4	21,6
12001-15000	91,6	8,4	75,5	24,5	49,2	50,8	74,3	25,7	68,6	31,4	77,1	22,9
15001-18000	94,3	5,7	84,4	15,6	68,9	31,1	90,5	9,5	83,3	16,7	83,3	16,7
18001-21000	94,3	5,7	90,2	9,8	75,3	24,7	88,6	11,4	68,6	31,4	87,8	12,2
21001-25000	97,8	2,2	81,0	19,0	80,0	20,0	100,0	0,0	85,2	14,8	92,7	7,3
25001-	99,2	0,8	98,4	1,6	87,5	12,5	100,0	0,0	95,5	4,5	94,4	5,6
Total	63,7	36,3	57,1	42,9	32,5	67,5	50,4	49,6	54,9	45,1	55,9	44,1

21	President of Finland
22	Parliament
23	Office of the Council of State
24	Ministry for Foreign Affairs
25	Ministry of Justice
26	Ministry of the Interior
27	Ministry of Defence
28	Ministry of Finance
29	Ministry of Education
30	Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry
31	Ministry of Transport and Communications
32	Ministry of Trade and Industry
33	Ministry of Social Welfare and Health
34	Ministry of Labour
35	Ministry of the Environment

Source: State Labour Market Office

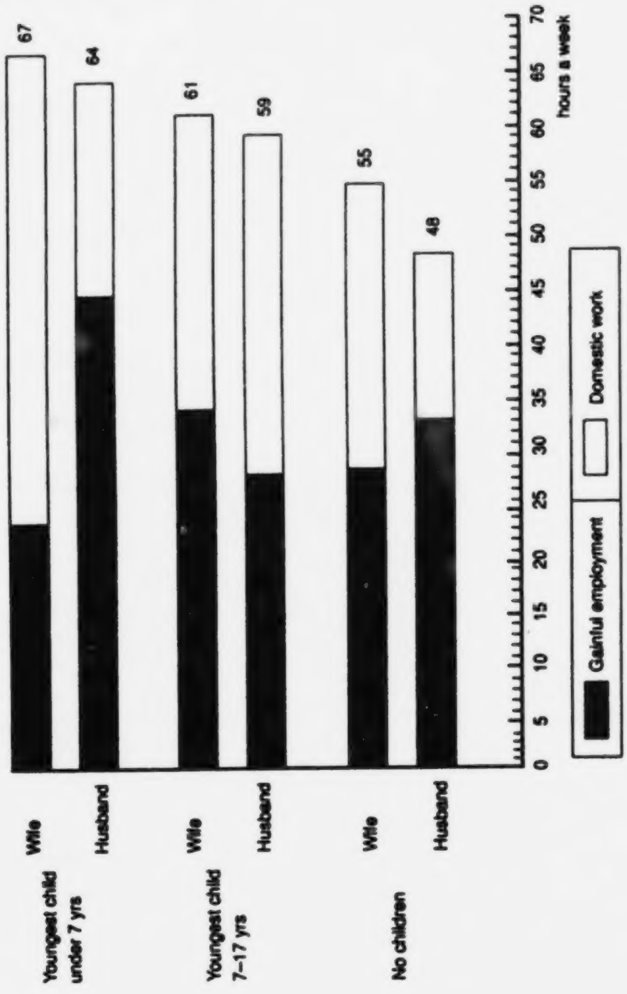
Use of time

42. Domestic work by phase of life



Source: Statistics Finland

43. Total working hours of wife and husband by the age of the youngest child



Source: Statistics Finland

44. Women's share of domestic work 1979 and 1987

Age group 15–64 years

	% Women Men + Women	
	1979	1987
Cooking	80	78
Dishwashing	86	81
Cleaning	83	80
Washing, ironing etc. clothes	96	95
Heating and plumbing	31	30
Repairs	7	8
Maintenance of car and bicycle	10	10
Childcare	76	75
Shopping and errands	56	57
Domestic work in total	68	66

Source: Studies on the use of time, Statistics Finland